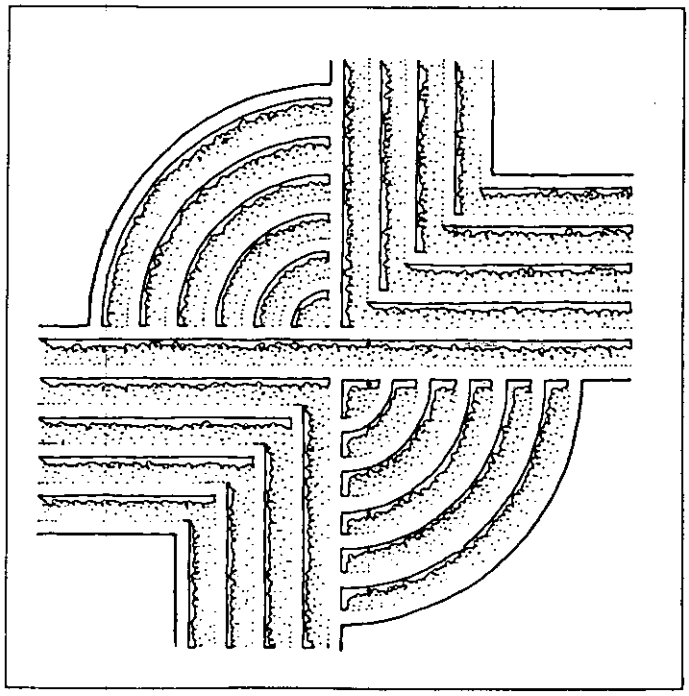
LIFE ON BROAD STREET: ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE HOLLINGS JUDICIAL CENTER ANNEX, CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 192

LIFE ON BROAD STREET: ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE HOLLINGS JUDICIAL CENTER ANNEX, CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA

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Chicora Research Contribution 192

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ABSTRACT

This study provides the results of an archaeological and historical survey of that portion of Broad Street in Charleston, South Carolina proposed for the construction of the federal Hollings Judicial Center Annex. The historical research and field investigations were conducted during late June and early July 1995, immediately prior to the anticipated construction start date — necessitating a very tight investigative schedule.

The study area is bounded to north by Broad Street, to the east by the current Hollings Judicial Center and the Charleston Post Office at 81-83 Broad Street, and to the west by the property at 103 Broad Street. The tract extends southward about 125 feet to 230 feet — essentially one lot in depth.

Throughout its history the study area was on either the western edge of Ward 1 or the eastern edge of Ward 2. The area began developing during the second quarter of the eighteenth century and by the turn of the century the frontage on Broad Street was intensively occupied.

City directories provide reliable information on occupants in the study area after about 1830. Prior to this period the house numbers cannot be correlated with those in use today but there seem to have been primarily owner occupants. During the antebellum the block includes an interesting mix of owner-occupants, several of whom operated businesses on their property, living on upper floors, and rental property, largely used by clerks, accountants, and wharfingers.

During the postbellum the block continued to attract renters and borders, although several properties tended to be owner-occupied, especially 89 and 93 Broad Street.

Archaeological survey was constrained by the dense development of the block. Very few areas were available for survey, with most of the ground covered by buildings slated for demolition during the latter phases of the project. Consequently, survey efforts focused on four areas identified as suitable for backhoe trenching. In these areas cuts, about 4 feet in width and 6 feet in length, were made to sterile soil. Samples of fill from approximately 1 to 2 foot thick strata were waterscreened for the recovery of artifacts. These remains, coupled with the stratigraphic evidence, served to identify the data sets present in the block area.

The archaeological investigations reveal 2 to 3 foot thick deposits of archaeological remains from the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Especially noticeable were the relatively dense deposits of faunal remains and sheet middens associated with several of the lots. Intact features, including architectural remains, were found in several of the units. None of the units revealed extensive, or widespread, damage.

It is likely that these deposits have the potential to help us better understand the changing character of Charleston and this particular portion of Broad Street. The data sets are appropriate for the study of several of the upper status owner-occupied dwellings in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. In addition, it is possible that deposits from the more middling status deposits can be isolated and examined. As a consequence, the site, defined as the study block, is eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

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We want to thank Mr. R. Thomas Moore for his support of Chicora Foundation and for allowing us to participate in this project. It is always a pleasure working with a group, such as Moore Development Corporation, which is so committed to the preservation of Charleston's heritage.

We want to thank all of those with the City of Charleston who have worked so hard to bring this project to a successful conclusion. The South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office has also worked diligently to ensure that the resources of Charleston were protected, while recognizing the significance of this project to the continued development of Charleston's economic base. Project review was provided by Ms. Nancy Brock.

Mr. Keith Derting of the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology assisted us with the site numbering for the project. Ms. Martha Zierden and Ms. Jan Hiester of The Charleston Museum helped us coordinate the curation of the survey collections with their institution. Ms. Zierden also kindly provided us with the benefit of her extensive knowledge and understanding of Charleston's history and archaeology, as well as sharing several reports on previous archaeological research in Charleston.

The staffs of a number of research institutions have provided exceptional support and assistance on very short notice, including the Charleston City Archives, the South Carolina Historical Society, the South Caroliniana Library, and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History. Ms. Mary Giles with the Charleston Museum assisted us in obtaining information concerning their photographic holdings.

We also want to thank Mrs. John Ragsdale for her kindness (which extended to allowing us to use her water supply for waterscreening) and interest in our work. We also appreciate the interest of her daughter, Caroline Ragsdale. A number of individuals helped in the arrangement and operation of the backhoe. In particular, we want to thank Mr. Billy Bower for making the necessary arrangements and Mr. Max Tallent of Tallent and Sons Construction for his expert backhoe operation. Finally, we appreciate the kindness shown to us by the Federal Courthouse security representatives who arranged for us to get in and out of the parking area.

INTRODUCTION

Development of the Project

On June 6, 1995 Chicora Foundation was requested by Mr. R. Thomas Moore of Moore Development Corporation to prepare a technical and budgetary proposal for an archaeological survey of that portion of block in Charleston bounded by Broad, Meeting, and King streets to be incorporated into the expansion of the existing Hollings Judicial Center. The project incorporates those lots currently numbered 85 through 101 Broad Street. A meeting was held in Charleston on June 24, which included Chicora Foundation, Moore Development Corporation, Preservation Consultants, and the City of Charleston. The project area was reviewed and various options for scheduling the work were discussed.

The General Services Administration (GSA) is proposing to lease the Hollings Judicial Center Annex from the developer of the property. As a consequence, the GSA has largely delegated its cultural resources responsibilities to Moore Development Corporation (GSA Scope of Work, dated January 19, 1996) — including requirements to comply with the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA) and the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA).

The current project, as we understand it, will involve the demolition of certain sections or portions of the properties at 85, 87, 89, 91, 93, and 95 Broad Street. In addition, the entire modern building at 99-101 Broad Street will be demolished with the open space serving as a construction staging area. Although these two lots are not part of the Hollings Judicial Center Annex footprint, it is an essential component in the overall project and is therefore incorporated into this study.

There are a series of exterior and interior conservation easements between Moore Development Corporation and Historic Charleston Foundation which govern much of the work anticipated to the facades and historic structures at 85-93 Broad. In addition, Historic Charleston Foundation has required archaeological research above the requirements of federal compliance, at 89 and 93 Broad Street — two structures of particular importance in the project area.

As previously mentioned, the project area incorporates the block bounded to the north by Broad Street, to the east by Meeting Street, to the west by King Street, just west of the current federal buildings on the southwest corner of Broad and Meeting Street — known locally as the four corner of the law (a reference to the presence of City Hall on the northeast corner, the County Courthouse on the northwest corner, the federal building on the southwest corner, and St. Michael's Episcopal Church on the southeast corner) (Figures 1 and 2). The generalized existing land use is a mix of commercial activities, and a few residences, primarily in rear lots or overhead. The building at 99-101 Broad is empty and several rear lots are densely built on.

A proposal for an archaeological survey, dated June 24, 1996, was prepared by Chicora Foundation and submitted to Moore Development Corporation for consideration. By the next day, June 25, Moore Development Corporation provided a verbal authorization to proceed with the study (which was confirmed by a letter dated that same day). As discussed in greater detail in a following section, this investigation included only historical and archaeological studies, it does not incorporate architectural preservation issues, which are being handled by Preservation Consultants of Charleston.

Historical research was undertaked by Dr. Michael Trinkley and Ms. Debi Hacker from June 27 through July 3, with additional follow-up on July 8 through July 10 (for a total of 58 person hours). The research was conducted at the South

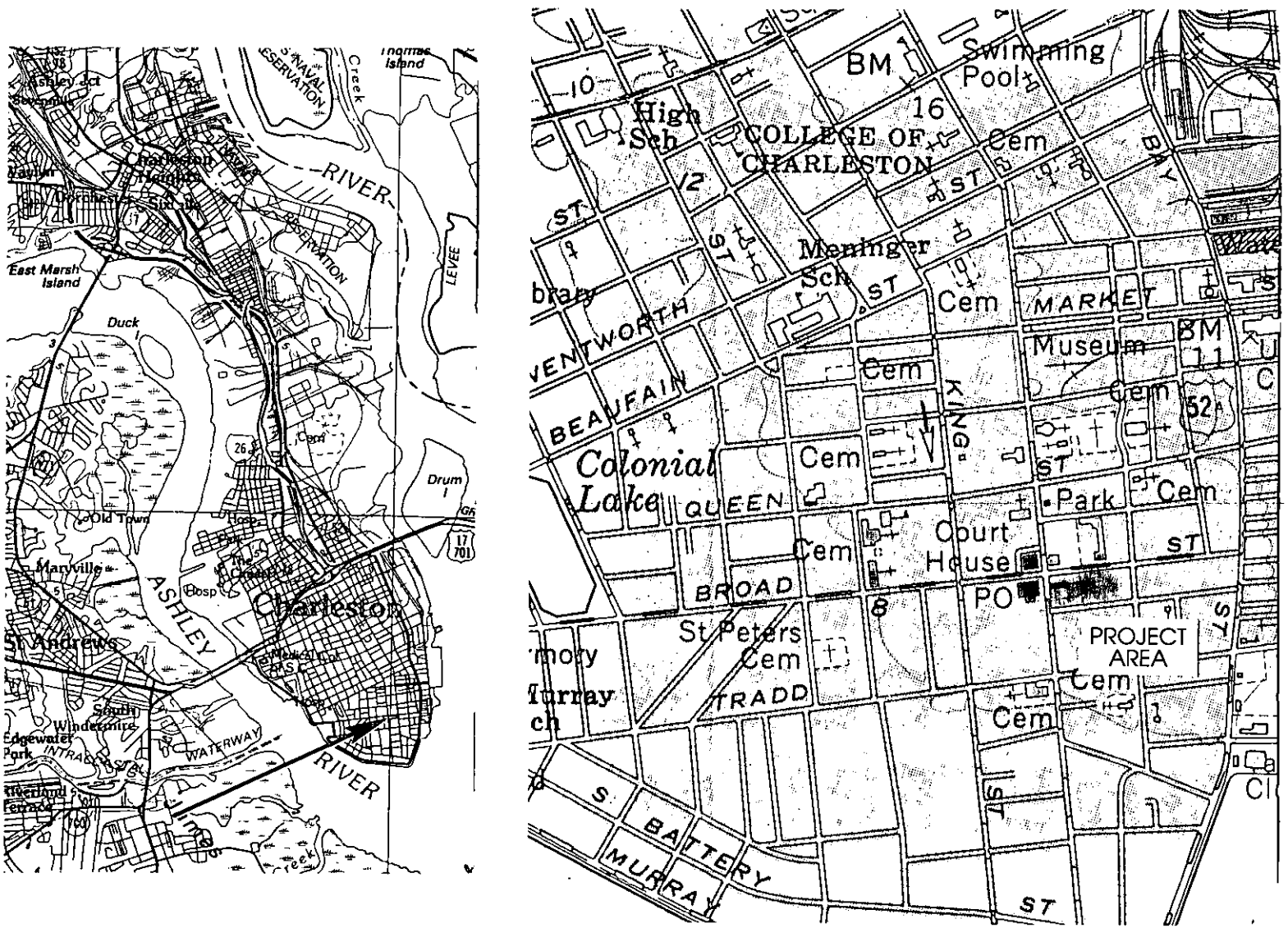

Figure 1. Area location map showing the Charleston vicinity and downtown Charleston.

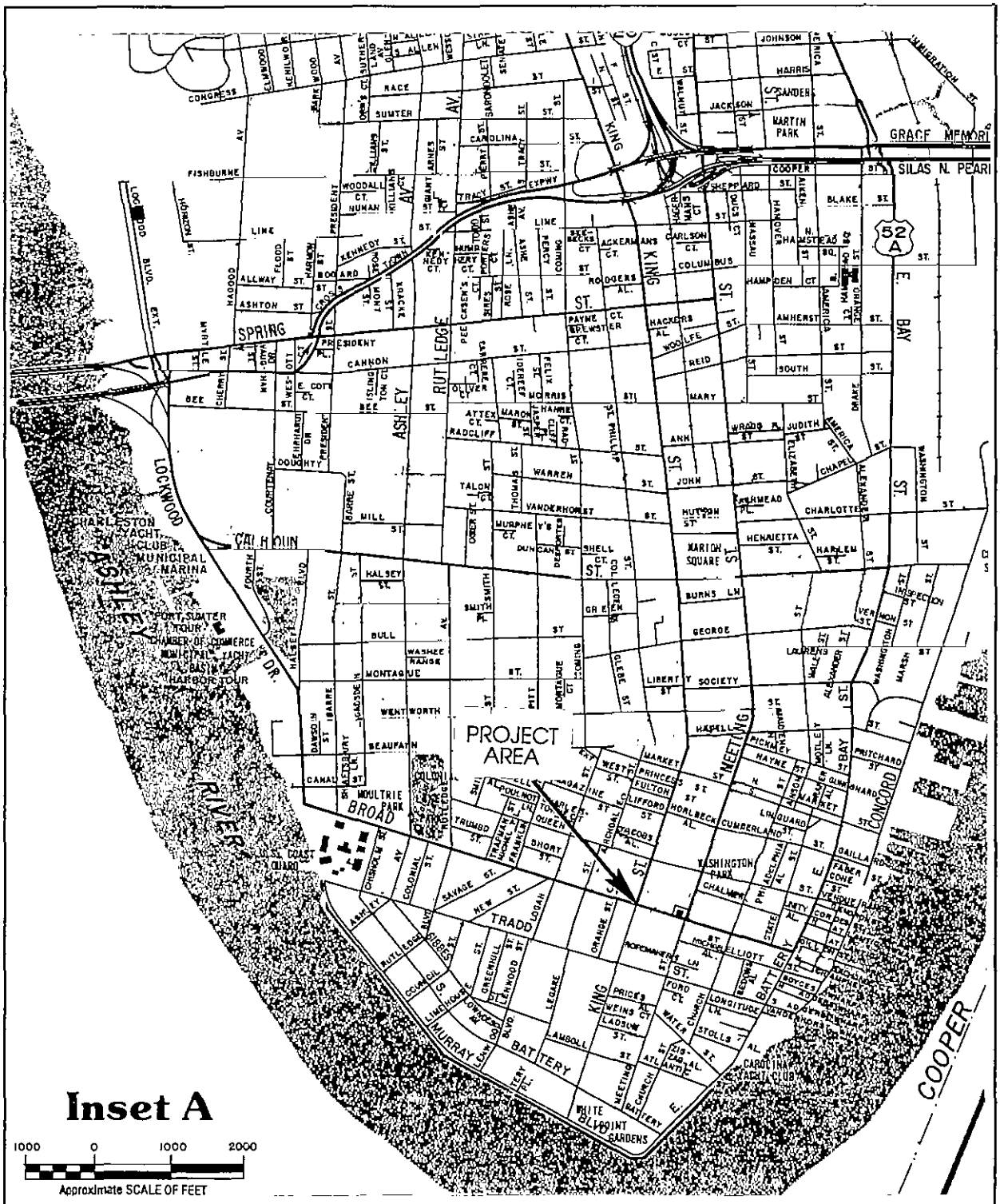

Figure 2. Site location in downtown Charleston.

Carolina Historical Society, the Charleston County Register of Mesne Conveyance, the Charleston County Public Library, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, and the South Caroliniana Library. Field investigations, totalling 32 person hours, were conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley and Ms. Debi Hacker on Saturday and Sunday, July 13 and 14, 1996.

The proposed undertaking will result in a wide range of construction related activities having the potential to damage or destroy archaeological resources. Future impacts are expected to include demolition of the extant building at 99-101 Broad Street, demolition of rear buildings and other small structures, the excavation of a basement at least 10-feet below the existing grade, placement of underground utilities, and construction of the various site features. In addition, it is a sad fact that construction in Charleston encourages individuals to rob and loot archaeological sites, placing the historical record at additional risk.

Goals and Research Objectives of the Project

The fundamental goals of the project may best be described as descriptive and exploratory, in spite of the exceptional amount of research conducted in downtown Charleston (see Zierden and Calhoun 1984 or Zierden 1986 for an overview), since the project was undertaken to comply with NHPA and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History's *Guidelines and Standards for Archaeological Investigations.*

Evaluation Process

In the simplest of terms, the study was undertaken to determine whether there were significant archaeological resources present in (or under) the project area eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Recently Townsend et al. (1993) have offered a cohesive approach to evaluating the significance of historic sites. This evaluative processes involves five steps, forming a clearly defined, explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as artifacts, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site *might* be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets are sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of "important" research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

Taking each of these steps individually, the first is simply to determine what is present at the site — for example, are features present, what types of artifacts are present, from what period does the site date? This represents the collection of basic, and essential, information concerning the site and the types of research contributions it can offer. Obviously there is no reason to propose research on eighteenth century urban development if only nineteenth century ceramics are present. Nor is it perhaps appropriate to explore questions focused on subsistence, or urban subsistence strategies, if no faunal materials are present. This first step is typically addressed through the survey investigations, often with supporting documentation provided by historic research.

Next, it is important to understand the historic context of the site — what is the history of the project area and of the specific locality? Research questions must be posed with an understanding of this context and the context helps

to direct the focus of research. The development of a historic context can be a lengthy process. Fortunately, Martha Zierden and Jeanne Calhoun (1984) offer an exceptional context for researchers which was heavily relied on by this survey and the subsequent data recovery efforts.

Associated with the development of the context is the formation of research questions ***applicable to the site, its context, and its data sets.*** Zierden and Calhoun noted the importance of well defined research questions years before Townsend's work:

> the research topics were formulated to act as a guide for future archaeological investigations in Charleston. The majority of the archaeological projects conducted in the past few years have been, and most likely many of the future projects will be, small in scale. Well formulated research questions facilitate a meaningful integration of the data from such small projects into a comparative framework. Thus, each individual project can contribute to a synthesis of information on these issues (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:98).

Next it is essential to compare the data sets with the research questions — the information necessary to address the research questions must be present at the site, else posing the question is meaningless in the evaluative process. Focusing on small projects, it may be more appropriate to concentrate on only one or perhaps two research questions and devote the energy necessary to fully explore them, then to propose a range of questions which can be only superficially explored with the data sets or resources available.

Finally, Townsend et al. recognize that not all research questions are of equal importance and that only those of transcending value should be considered in the evaluation of National Register eligibility. Of all the steps this may be the most difficult to address. Zierden and others in urban archaeology have provided an excellent review of pertinent research questions, so the process is perhaps less difficult than imagined. Nevertheless, some of the research questions proposed may seem pedestrian. Our society has viewed history as great events happening to great individuals. Many view architectural significance with the same jaundiced eye — significance being equated with white columns and famous architects. Curiously, we know much less about the common man — and vernacular architecture — than we do about the famous or the high style. Some historians have referred to the common man or woman as the "invisible person." Others have offered some understanding using the concept of the "marginal man." It is consequently important to understand that significance of archaeological research questions is not judged from the perspective of the wealth, or power, or prestige of the historic persons involved. It is judged from the perspective of what the research can tell us about the past that traditional historical research cannot.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites actually being nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluation process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation where only, typically, one discrete site is being considered. In the case of survey evaluations, and especially in the urban setting where the definition of a "site" is more difficult (as discussed below), some modifications of the approach seem reasonable, if not actually essential. Regardless, the approach advocated by Townsend et al. encourages researchers to carefully consider, and justify, their recommendations regarding National Register eligibility.

In the current project the data sets of the project area were identified using a combination of land use history research and traditional archaeological survey techniques. An overview historic context was provided by Zierden and Calhoun (1984) and supplements by site specific historic research. The research questions proposed by Zierden and Calhoun (1984) in their archaeological preservation plan for Charleston

were adapted for use by this study. These research questions were evaluated in light of the archaeological survey and the data sets identified, or thought likely to be present, at the project site. Finally, an effort was made to cull the research questions, focusing on those thought to offer the greatest potential for substantive contributions to our understanding of Charleston's rich history.

Sites and Disturbance in Urban Archaeology

One of the "problems" encountered in urban archaeology is that the definition of a "site" is more difficult. Traditionally, archaeologists have defined a site (in the broadest terms) as anyplace that humans have left some evidence of their activity.[1] Sites may then include anything from a temporary camp where an arrowhead was sharpened to a city. The difference, at least at one level, is one of scale, although sites become even more complex when they are viewed diachronically (i.e., through time) rather than synchronically (that is, frozen in time). Zierden, and many of her colleagues in urban archaeology, view the entire city as their site — a very convincing approach since it is impossible to provide persuasive and defensible boundaries for human activity within the city. From an administrative approach, however, it is difficult to discuss National Register eligibility without having a site with specific geographical boundaries. Administratively, it does little good to say that the City of Charleston is an archaeological site and that it is eligible without also determining whether there are remains on the survey tract worthy of additional study.[2] While the archaeological site within the urban city may be defined on some arbitrary basis, such as the boundaries of a city block, research shows us that block shapes and sizes change. Further, artifacts do not stop conveniently at the edge of property lines or at the curb to the street, so boundaries based on this approach may twist and contort reality to fit an administrative device.

Another equally unique "problem" is the nature of archaeological deposits in the urban setting. Zierden and Calhoun observe that:

> Urban archaeology poses its own particular set of problems and advantages, in terms of methodology and research orientation. Unlike the surrounding countryside, the city is the scene of major and numerous land alterations. Because of this, the archaeological record is often deep and well preserved, but the earlier deposits are often disturbed by, and mixed with, subsequent activities and deposits (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:14).

A somewhat more detailed analysis of this issue is offered by Nicholas Honerkamp and his colleagues from the investigation of the Telfair Site in downtown Savannah, Georgia:

> After more than 50 years of searching for the elusive "layer cake" site, it might be expected that Southeastern prehistoric and historical archaeologists would have abandoned this hoary fixation and instead concentrated on developing methodologies appropriate to real sites. . . . What "disturbed" actually means is "not the time period I wanted" or "not in the condition I expect and desire." As Salwen (1979) has

[1] Sites may also be defined from a compliance, or administrative perspective. For example, Marion Smith, director of the Florida Site File, has recently proposed that a site must meet at least one of the following requirements: "at least one artifact is diagnostic [or] at least three nondiagnostic artifacts fit within a circle of 30 meters diameter, regardless of depth."

[2] Archaeological remains are not homogeneous at archaeological sites, no matter how they are defined. Human activities tend to clustered in certain areas. While some activities leave more evidence than others, within virtually all sites the distribution of artifacts and features is patterned.

> pointed out, what human activity does not "disturb" the locale in which it occurs?. . . . If disorganized evidence of former occupations, including non-target occupations, is present at a site, it can be of interest and value to archaeologists — provided the site is not first dismissed as "h o p e l e s s l y d i s t u r b e d" (Honerkamp et al. 1983:9-10).

The point is that the "reality of the city" is such that "disturbances" are part of the archaeological record. Buildings are built, fires occur, structures are razed, others simply decay, streets change location — and all the while archaeological evidence is accumulated, mixed, sometimes destroyed, sometimes partially preserved. If we use "integrity" in the same sense as it is applied to rural sites to judge the condition of urban sites, none will pass muster — they all will be found to be "disturbed." But in many cases it is this disturbance which can help us to understand the growth and evolution of the city.

Research Questions

Zierden and Calhoun (1984:99-113) have suggested a series of eight research questions for urban archaeology in Charleston. While not all of these are appropriate for the project area, it is important to briefly outline the range of issues, focusing in on those of particular importance to this study.

Site Function. Zierden notes that many of Charleston's structures served a dual function as residences and businesses. As a response to Charleston's commercial system and geographic restrictions, the commercial core of the city was subject to intensive occupation characterized by long, narrow lots, multi-storied buildings, and a dual residential-commercial function (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:99). This was certainly the case for several of the Broad Street properties in the study tract where owners maintained offices on the lower floors and lived in the upper two floors. This type of activity seems to have increased in the early postbellum. While it has been possible to detect craft activities through the artifact record, the commercial retail trade results in lateral transfer of goods and it has been very difficult to distinguish this activity in the urban archaeological record. Zierden and Calhoun note, however, that commercially related materials may be present under very specific conditions, such as the destruction of a structure by fire or discard associated with property transfers. Otherwise, discard (deliberate or loss) at dual function sites will resemble a domestic pattern.

Zierden and Calhoun recommend research to delineate site function through (1) the recognition of site formation process and (2) artifact patterning. Artifact studies may more productively involve the frequency relationship of specific artifact types or examination of individual artifact types, rather than a preoccupation with artifact groups. They recommend that "continued excavations within Charleston's commercial area should provide the data necessary to continue this study" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:100).

Status Variability. Both historical archaeology in general, and Charleston's urban archaeology in specific, has focused on the delineation of socioeconomic status, using the documentary record as a control. Status may be reflected in the settlement pattern, housing type, material items, and the diet of the household. Zierden and Calhoun propose a three tiered socio-political ladder. At the top rung are the aristocracy — wealthy planters and merchants — who dominated Charleston society, politics, and the economic affairs of the colony. They note that in the nineteenth century the wholesale merchant class declined in importance and social standing, likely as the result of the lingering distrust brought on by the American Revolution toward the merchant class as well as an inward preoccupation. On the middle rung were Charleston's primarily white middle class of retail merchants and artisans. At the lowest rung were the manual laborers, both skilled and unskilled. Although the overwhelming majority of this class consisted of African American slaves, there was an underclass of poor whites and even "free persons of color.".

Zierden and her colleagues note that these different groups lived in different parts of Charleston. It is noted that while it is almost impossible to equate specific site assemblages with specific site residents, status can be recognized in the archaeological record when documentary sources are used as controls (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:101). Status indicators have also been found in the diet, clothing, and personal items. They recommend that Charleston "provides an excellent data base for examining [social stratification], using the documentary evidence as a control" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:102).

In the project area there is a mix of both well-to-do property owners and middle class boarders. In many respects this block was a buffer between the eighteenth and nineteenth century commercial core running from East Bay along Broad Street and the residential section further to the west from which commercial interests were largely excluded (see Calhoun and Zierden 1984:Figure 5).

Urban Subsistence Strategy. Food remains in the urban archaeological site are useful in the study of cultural conservatism, adaptation to the local environment, ethnicity, and social variability. Faunal studies have found a potentially strong dichotomy between rural and urban food sources, with the urban setting precluding the use of many wild species, and focusing attention on beef (with surprising little attention on pork and caprines).

Zierden and Calhoun (1984:103) recommend that the Charleston urban sites be examined for information on urban marketing and processing procedures (such as butchering practices and mean distribution systems). They also note that "an archaeological examination of historic subsistence strategies can make a significant contribution to an examination of the cultural processes affecting the development of Charleston," and urge studies explore rear lot areas — where trash such as food bones are most likely to be recovered — as well as exploration of specialized features, such as privies.

The project area, again, offers the potential to compare differences in subsistence strategies between relatively stable owner-occupants and renters or boarders. Several of the lots also offer the potential to explore subsistence remains and disposal practices associated with rear kitchens. Although much of the area is today paved or otherwise altered, the work by Martha Zierden and her colleagues suggests that large collections of animal bones may be found under the kitchens situated in the rear lots (Zierden et al. 1995:123).

Site Formation Processes. Obviously if we are to successfully interpret the evidence of human activity at urban sites it is essential that we be able to understand the cultural and natural processes responsible for the formation of the archaeological record. This research question focuses on the previous discussion of "disturbances" in the urban archaeological record. But it is more than simply of methodological interest. Portions of Charleston were created on "made land," consisting of deposits of trash moved from elsewhere. The frequent fires resulted in large amounts of rubble and demolition materials which were incorporated into the archaeological record. Our understanding of Charleston and our interpretation of individual sites is dependent on our understanding of how the sites were formed (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:104). This issue has been a focus of numerous research projects in Charleston and is discussed at length by Zierden et al. (1995:120-126).

Urban Slavery. Zierden and Calhoun note that while much work has been recently accomplished to understand the lifeways of the black slave on the rural plantation, there is considerably less information regarding the large proportion of slaves which lived and worked in the city. They note that "the black majority of Charleston offers an excellent data base to study this aspect of Afro-American slavery" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:105). They note that there are likely differences between the slaves who lived with their masters in well defined slave quarters behind the town house and those who "lived out," on their own. They note that slaves who "lived out" might achieve a considerable degree of social and economic "freedom," at least when compared to other slaves.

Zierden and Calhoun suggest that urban slaves in general will reveal a different archaeological pattern than their rural brothers and sisters: "the material assemblage of urban slave sites is expected to show more variability in all areas of material culture" although the artifact categories most sensitive to social status will be "those containing more personal, highly curated objects, rather than those items used in the more mundane affairs of daily life" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:106). While not explicitly discussed by Zierden and Calhoun, a consistent problem with slave assemblages in urban settings is the degree of mixing with their masters, which precludes definitive statements on an assemblage basis.

The Free Black Population. Charleston was always noted for the relatively large number of "free persons of color" living on the fringe of society. Zierden and Calhoun note that "this anomalous group occupied a precarious position in Charleston and sought acceptance by white society by disassociating themselves from their enslaved brethren" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:106). They note that throughout much of Charleston's history the aristocracy was based on color, not wealth and racial unity allowed artisan, merchant, and planter to joint together in "one great interest." They also note that while wealth could not insulate the free blacks from repressive laws or discriminatory society, it did create clear class lines within the category of "free persons of color."

Zierden and Calhoun observe that, "archaeological research on free blacks in Charleston . . . approaches the questions of status and ethnicity simultaneously, by comparing free blacks with a group of similar status and different ethnic heritage (middle class whites) and which a group of differing social status and similar ethnic heritage (urban slaves)" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:108). They note the problems inherent in dealing with issues of social status and ethnicity and remark that:

> several descriptive, baseline studies will have to be conducted before the present research question can be addressed successfully. A careful, processual examination of the marginal urban free black group is expected to provide information on status and ethnicity in the urban environment (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:108).

Spatial Patterning as a Macro-Adaptive Strategy. Primarily through the examination of newspaper advertisements and other documentary sources, Zierden and Calhoun (1984:109) trace the development of Charleston's spatial patterning. They find that the concentration of merchants, and some craftsmen, resulted in the development of a commercial core focused on the waterfront, located between Queen and Water streets and on three major east-west thoroughfares — Broad, Tradd, and Elliott streets. The increasing value of land and buildings resulted in the increased multiple use of buildings and an interchangeable character. This lead to the previously discussed tendency for dual function sites, combining business and domestic activities. By the antebellum period they observe an increasing tendency for residential and business districts to become differentiated. Wealthy individuals clustered in the area south of Broad. Although the commercial core remained focused on the waterfront, King Street rapidly gained in importance and the growth of the town shifted from an east-west to north-south orientation.

Zierden and Calhoun propose a model for land use patterning during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries based on these observations:

> elements include the subdivision of lots and maximal use of real estate, a dual residential/ commercial function of buildings, frontage of the structure directly on the street and extensive reuse of backlot elements as trash repositories (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:111).

They note that other factors affecting the archaeological record — and our interpretation of that record — include multiple land use by different families, rental and subletting of

properties, and ownership of large blocks by wealthy merchants.

Rural-Urban Contrasts Among the Upper Class. This last major research area focuses on the ties planters maintained with the city, especially to display their wealth. Charleston was not only a political center, but it was also South Carolina's social center and planters with newly acquired wealth were anxious to establish themselves in the proper society. Zierden and Calhoun observe that the "planter's townhouse . . . is a study in 18th and 19th century conspicuous consumption" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:112). But this research question focuses not only on the comparison of the townhouse with the plantation main house, but also on the contrasts in adaption between the city and plantation environments. These may include differences in marketing practices, the availability of municipal services, the use of space for refuse disposal, and (as previously discussed) the need for combining commercial and residential activities.

The Natural Setting

The project area is situated in downtown Charleston, bounded to the north by Broad Street, to the east by Meeting Street and to the west by King Street, and extending essentially one lot in depth south of Broad Street. This area is just outside the 1704 walled city but within what was originally conceived of as "The Grand Model." Today it is characterized by mixed commercial and residential buildings on the edge of a residential district. Along Broad Street there are extant structures, broken only by an alleyway opening between 93 and 95 Broad Street (formed from the side lots of these two structures), many of which are historic. The most notable exception is 99-103 (listed as 103) Broad, which is a modern building, now abandoned. Many of these structures have their rear lots filled with either historic or modern structures. The only exception to this is 85-87 Broad, whose rear lot was once the location of kitchens, now demolished for a garden. Clearly the project area's current environmental conditions bear little resemblance to the environment typical of the eighteenth or nineteenth centuries.

Physiography, Geology, and Soils

Charleston County is located in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to east by the Atlantic Ocean and a series of marsh, barrier (such as Sullivans), and sea (such as James) islands (Mathews et al. 1980:133). Elevations in the County range from sea level to about 70 feet above mean sea level (MSL). The mainland topography, which consists of subtle ridge and bay undulations, is characteristic of beach ridge plains. Seven major drainages are found in Charleston County. Four of these, the Wando, Ashley, Stono, and North Edisto, are dominated by tidal flows and are saline. The three with significant freshwater flow are the Santee, forming the northern boundary of the County, the South Edisto, forming the southern boundary, and the Cooper, which bisects the County. Because of the low topography, many broad, low gradient interior drains are present as either extensions of the tidal rivers or as flooded bays and swales.

The city of Charleston is situated on a peninsula with the Ashley River to the west, the Cooper River to the east, and (originally) moderately shallow harborage with extensive tidal areas surrounding it on the two river sides. A postbellum publication called *Charleston and its Suburbs* (South Caroliniana Library) notes that, "because Charleston lies low, and seems to rise up out of the waters as one sails up to it, has been called the American Venice." This particular environmental setting affected Charleston's history, providing it protection, making it a focus of trade, determining its architectural style, and concentrating its population. Zierden and her colleagues note that while "to the twentieth century eye, the Charleston peninsula is level" that this is an illusion:

> Major changes such as the filling of creeks and marshes along the Ashley River and the creation of "made" land along the Cooper riverfront began in the late 17th century and continued into the early 20th. Deliberate, large-scale filling has been encountered at diverse sites (Zierden et al. 1995:120).

In 1700 John Lawson described Charleston as standing "on a Point very convenient for Trade, being seated between two pleasant and navigable Rivers" (Lefler 1967:8), while in the second half of the eighteenth century, William DeBrahm described the port as "extensive" and noted that the "City of Charles Town is in every respect the most convenient and by far the richest City in the Southern District of North America" (DeVorsey 1971:90).

The topography of the peninsula, while heavily altered by over 300 years of occupation, suggests a central ridge, sloping toward the bordering tidal creeks and rivers east and west. Elevations ranged from near sea level to about 14 feet above MSL in the higher central areas. Through time the large number of tidal sloughs and creeks which flowed into the Charleston area were filled, largely with urban rubble and refuse, creating vast areas of made land (Figure 3). These efforts included a combination of public and private ventures to create additional developable land in Charleston and continued into the twentieth century as the City continued to expand and grow. Although areas were filled in to the south, from Water Street to Tradd, and to the west, in the area of what is today New and Savage streets, the project area was situated on the sandy ridge which ran north-south down the Charleston peninsula.

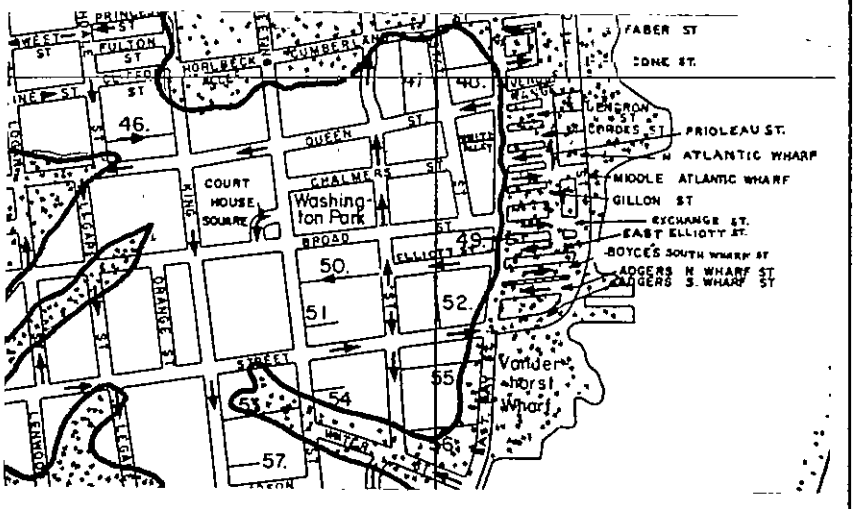

Figure 3. Man-made land in Charleston (from "Original Water Line of Charleston, S.C., Compiled by Alfred O. Halsey, June 1949)

The topography of the project area is generally flat. Twentieth century demolition, construction, and landscaping makes the reconstruction of original topography virtually impossible. Rear lots have been paved, with modifications necessary for appropriate drainage. The one area not paved, situated behind 85-87 Broad Street, has been extensively modified for the creation of a landscaped restaurant garden.

The Atlantic Coastal Plain consists mostly of marine sediments deposited during successive periods of fluctuating sea level and shore line. The majority of the sediments are sands, silts, and clays deposited on a shallow sloping sea bottom. The soils in this portion of Charleston (underlying a thin veneer of fill material or urban rubble) consist of from 49 to 56 feet of Pleistocene age interbedded sands and clays unconformably overlying the Oligocene age Cooper Marl. The higher elevations of Charleston consist of soils belonging to the Chipley-Lakeland association — mainly moderately well drained to excessively well drained, nearly level to gently sloping sands. Other areas were likely dominated by Charleston Series soils — moderately well drained to somewhat poorly drained loamy fine sands found on level to gently sloping areas typically adjacent to marsh sloughs (Miller 1971).

Two previous nearby projects provide some information concerning the soils in this area of Charleston. At the Post Office and Courthouse Annex, immediately to the east and southeast, Beverly Bastian and her colleagues found a dark

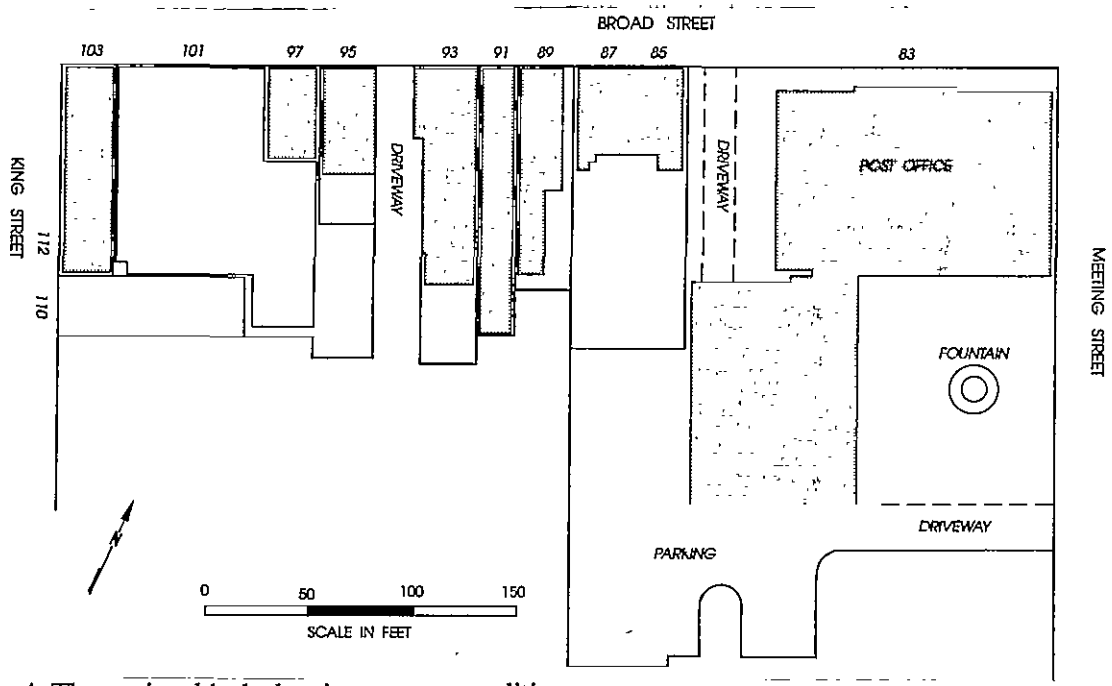

Figure 4. The project block showing current conditions.

Figure 5. 1886 earthquake damage areas in Charleston (taken from Stockton 1986:Figure 54).

brown to brownish-yellow compact sandy silt zone representing the original topsoil present in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Below this they recovered a brownish-yellow to light gray compact sand, representing the sterile subsoil (Bastian et al 1987:6-2 — 6-10). This particular combination of soils resembles the Chipley Series, typically found in level areas with variable drainage (Miller 1971:10-11). In contrast, excavations across Broad Street, at the Charleston County Courthouse Square, apparently found that the original soils were a dark gray compact sandy clay loam overlying a dark brownish gray sand or sandy loam subsoil (Joseph and Elloitt 1994:30). In contrast to these discoveries, the four units excavated in the project area (discussed below) all reveal what appear to Wando soils — an A horizon of dark brown sand overlying a C horizon of strong brown sand gradually grading into yellow sand. The project area appears to be situated in the middle of the sand ridge which characterizes Charleston's peninsula, so this soil profile is not totally unexpected.

Period observers of Charleston, and indeed the entire low country, tend to comment on the sandy soils. For example, F.A. Michaux, discussing Charleston at the turn of the century, commented:

> the streets of Charleston are extremely wide, but not paved, consequently every time your foot slips from a kind of brick pavement before the doors, you are immerged nearly ankle-deep in sand. The rapid circulation of the carriages . . . continually grinds this moving sand, and pulverizes it in such a manner, that the most gentle wind fills the shops with it, and renders it very disagreeable to foot passengers (Thwaites 1904:3:121-122).

The large areas of made land in Charleston, coupled with the naturally sandy soils, resulted in extensive damage during the earthquake of 1886. Stockton (1986) comments on the extensive damage on Broad Street, quoting a *News and Courier* article, which explains that, "Broad Street had been rendered almost impassible by fallen debris, and nearly every building along the street was damaged to some degree" (quoted in Stockton 1986:35-36). He notes the damage done to St. Michael's, at the southeast corner of Broad and Meeting. Across Meeting, he notes that:

> The Greek Revival-style Main Police Station on the southwest corner (1838, Charles F. Reichhardt, architect) was a wreck. The upper portion of the Broad Street facade had fallen onto the front collonade, caving in the roof and destroying part of the entablature over the massive, fluted Doric columns, and the upper portion of the east elevation had collapsed into Meeting Street (Stockton 1986:36).

As will be discussed in greater detail in the historic overview, more specific building by building references suggest that the study area was largely spared by the earthquake. In fact, seven of the 10 buildings on the block were had all four walls listed as being in good condition after the earthquake (and the walls of an eighth building were listed as "ok"). The range of damage costs was $150 to $2500, with the average for the buildings in the project area being just over $900 (Charleston Fire Department, n.d.).

Health and Climate

Promotional pamphlets of the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century were nearly all equally glowing in their accounts of Carolina. The reputed author of the 1710 *A Letter from South Carolina*, Thomas Nairne, described South Carolina as a vast "champaign Country," complete with a "well stock'd" forest and a sea coast "full of Island, Sounds, Bays, Marshes" (Greene 1989:37). Nairne explains that the "air of *Carolina* is generally very clear and fine, even when the greatest Rains fall, the Weather does not continue long cloudy, for the sun soon dissipates the Fogs, and restores the Air to its usual Serenity"

(Greene 1989:42).

While less well known, John Norris offered similar recommendations in his *Profitable Advice for Rich and Poor*, commenting that:

> The greatest Part of the Year round seems very pleasant and delightful, and is generally Healthful to most People that live Temperate. . . . Although the Summer Months seem burdensome to some People, yet the Conveniency of shady Groves, open Air, Arbours, Summer-Houses, and frequent cool Bathings makes amends sufficiently for the Inconvency (Greene 1989:89).

John Duffy (1952) counters these accounts of Carolina's health. He observes that the average European could expect to live to the age of about 30 in South Carolina during the first quarter of the eighteenth century. Yellow fever, smallpox, diphtheria, scarlet fever, malaria, dysentery all were at home in Carolina. Using the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel (SPG) records, Duffy found that from 1700 to 1750, 38% of the missionaries either died or were compelled to resign because of serious illness within the five years of their arrival. Within 10 years of arrival, 52% died or resigned because of health problems. After 15 years in the colonies, the combined death toll and resignations from sickness reaches 68% — two out of every three missionaries. Frank Klingberg (1941:154), using the SPG records, found that in a single four month period over 400 African Americans died of "distemper."

Roy Merrens and George Terry (1989) note that during the early period of Carolina's settlement its climate was "perceived and portrayed as a terrestrial paradise" (Merrens and Terry 1989:534). Often the descriptions are even more glowing than those given by Nairne and Norris quoted earlier. Consistently the climate is portrayed as healthful, the land fertile, the soil inviting, and the native plants and animals all beneficial to English exploitation. It is no wonder that the early colony existed on, in the words of Coclanis, "activities which included not only mixed agriculture but rudimentary extraction and plunder — the stuff of Marxian primitive accumulation" (Coclanis 1989:58).

Yet, it is clear that there was a dark side to the Carolina climate. Merrens and Terry describe many of the accounts, noting that no less a notable physician and natural historian as Alexander Garden complained that, "Our long & hot summers enervate & unbrace the whole System" (Merrens and Terry 1989:539). They observe that in Christ Church Parish along the coast north of Charleston, 86% of all those whose births and deaths are recorded in the parish register, died before the age of twenty.

Beginning in the last third of the eighteenth century the life expectancy began to increase. Merrens and Terry suggest that this was the result of the occupants beginning to understand the causes of malaria:

> During the middle of the eighteenth century South Carolinians' perception of the wholesome environment of the lowcountry swamps began to change. People no longer preferred these areas on the score of health as a place of summer residence. Instead, residents began to view the lowcountry as fostering both mosquitoes and death (Merrens and Terry 1989:547).

The cultivation of indigo and rice, as well as the swamp lands — all common to the Charleston area — were recognized as contributing factors. The climate, however, not only affected the health and well-being of the settlers, it also affected the politics of Carolina. The summer climate of Carolina, while causing the Barbadian immigrants to feel that they had resettled in the tropics, also convinced most Carolinians that slavery was inevitable. Not only was slavery the accepted order to the planters from Barbados, Jamaica, Antigue,

and St. Kitts, it was impossible for white Englishmen to work in the torrid heat — African American slaves were essential (Donnan 1928).

Another aspect of the climate not yet mentioned were the hurricanes which frequented the coast. Hewatt noted that, "hurricanes have also often visited the country, and through such low and flat lands have spread their desolation far and wide" (Hewatt 1971:I:83 [1779]). He describes the August 1728 hurricane which, "levelled many thousand trees in the maritime parts" (Hewatt 1971:I:317 [1779]), as well as the 1752 storm, which was so fierce that, "almost all the tiled and slated houses were uncovered .... The fortifications and wharfs were almost entirely demolished: the provisions in the field, in the maritime parts, were destroyed, and numbers of cattle and hogs perished in the waters" (Hewatt 1971:II:181 [1779]). Concerning this storm, Ramsay quotes one eye witness who remarked that "one foot less in the height of the land, or one foot more in the height of the water" would have inundated every spot of ground in Charleston (Ramsay 1858:41-42).

Table 1.
Major Charleston Hurricanes Through the Early Nineteenth Century

Date	Classification	Damage
August 25, 1686	Major	Flooding, wind damage
September 14/16, 1700	Great	Flooding, at least 97 deaths
September 5/6, 1713	Major	Flooding, perhaps 70 deaths
September 13/14, 1728	Major	23 ships damaged or lost, forests leveled
September 15, 1752	Extreme	Extensive flooding, damage, death
September 1784	Major (?)	Flooding, extensive property loss
August 27, 1813	Great	Severe winds, tides, crop losses
September 27, 1822	Major	Extensive crop losses, 300 deaths

One hundred sixty nine storms have been documented from 1686 to 1972, or about one every two years (Mathews et al. 1980:56). These storms seemed capricious in occurrence to the early settlers:

> in such a case between the dread of pestilence in the city, of common fever in the country, and of an unexpected hurricane on the island, the inhabitants ... are at the close of every warm season in a painful state of anxiety, not knowing what course to pursue, not what is best to be done (Ramsay 1858, quoted in Calhoun 1983:2).

Table 1 lists the major storms of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and early nineteenth centuries which may have affected the Charleston area.

Natural History of the City

The proposed project area contains little vegetation. What does exist, excluding plants introduced to landscape in the garden behind 85-87 Broad Street, are associated with old lot lines and represent those species which can adapt to the urban environment. Weedy vegetation, including such species as the Southern sandspur, is found around buildings and fence lines. There are no natural areas remaining and there is no evidence of wildlife other than a few birds and probably commensual species such as mice and rats.

Regardless, Charleston is an area of environmental diversity because of its proximity to wetlands and tidal estuaries. The vegetation, prior to the development of the town, was probably dominated by oak-hickory-pine forests (Küchler 1964:111). After 1680, when the colonists moved from Oyster Point to the present site of Charleston, the native landscape changed dramatically. The town, intended to encompass 300 acres, was laid out on a central square plan emulating Thomas Holme's design for Philadelphia and also Robert Newcourt's 1666 plan for the rebuilding of London and the various Ulster towns of 1609-1613 built by the Irish Society. These designs are discussed by Fries (1977), but it should be noted that they are characteristically urban in

both population density and non-agricultural orientation. Fries notes that these designs were "in the service of utility and private property in land, not the delight and pleasure in site and ambience" (Fries 1977:98). While little research has been conducted on the colonial landscape of urban Charleston, it is clear that this urban vision had major impacts on the native environment of Charleston.

In 1700 Lawson remarked that Charleston "has very regular and fair streets, in which are good Buildings of Brick and Wood, and since my coming thence, has had great Additions of beautiful, large Brick-buildings" (Lefler 1967:8). In spite of these favorable comments, it is likely that Charleston's rapid expansion gave rise to problems identified by William Stephens of Savannah, Georgia in the 1740s: "the publick Squares, and most other Parts of the Town . . . [are] filled with an offensive Weed, near as high as a Man's shoulders" (quoted in Tate 1984:307). Wallace comments that Charleston's streets were "cluttered with filth" (Wallace 1951:197). Weir (1983) notes that by the end of the colonial period firewood was becoming very rare and was being transported into Charleston from more distant locales[3] and "the British, who occupied the city during the Revolution, even cut down the protected trees lining nearby roads" (Weir 1983:44). A more idyllic view is offered by George Rogers:

> When spring came, the fragrance of the flowers hovered sweetly in the air; indeed, the smell of flowers was scarcely absent the whole year through. . . . In one of the first issues of the *Gazette* in 1732, Charles Pinckney advertised garden seed from London. By 1730, Mrs. Lamboll had a "handsome flower and kitchen garden upon the English plan" (Rogers 1980:83-84).

Charleston offered these small natural areas — gardens in which "oranges, figs, sugar cane, pomegranates, and the prairie grass of South American, soft as silk in hand" were grown by the wealthy (Thwaites 1905:12:72-73).

The botany of Charleston was also affected by a number of natural disasters, which remove the native plants and allow invasion by "weedy" species as part of natural plant succession (Odum 1971:131, 242). Most significant during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were the fires (see Dana 1858 and Courtenay 1880 for brief reviews). Although different parts of Charleston were devastated by the 1740, 1778, 1796, 1838, and 1861 fires, the project area was apparently untouched by them all.

Thus, during most of Charleston's history the city's biotic environment was largely shaped by the intentional (i.e., garden planning and deforestation) and unintentional (i.e., fires) actions of humans. Both, however, created an unnatural, disturbed environment open to plants typically called "weeds," many of which are stenotrophic and thrive on enriched (or polluted) conditions typical of the urban environment (Odum 1971:113).

Curation

The field notes, photographic materials, and artifacts resulting from Chicora Foundation's survey have been curated at the Charleston Museum under archaeological site number 38CH1644. The Accession Number for this project is 1996.60 and the catalog numbers are ARL 42163 through ARL 42171. The collections have been cleaned and/or conserved as necessary. All original records and duplicate copies were provided to the curatorial facility on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper. Photographic materials, including both black and white print negatives and color transparencies, from the survey also have been curated at The Charleston Museum. Cataloging follows the standard lot provenience systems used by the repository.

It is important to explain, if only briefly, our rational for site numbering. Some of our

[3] F.A. Michaux (Thwaites 1904:3:123) commented that, "wood is extravagantly dear at Charleston; it costs from forty to fifty shillings a *cord*" in 1805.

colleagues, such as Martha Zierden at The Charleston Museum, have very convincingly argued that the entire City of Charleston is an archaeological site. Certainly excavations anywhere in the city are likely to reveal archaeological remains. And human activity has occurred virtually everywhere in the city. This approach, however, is not especially useful for administrative — or tracking — purposes. Identifying sites by the name of the particular building or the particular owner has limitations when the names change, aren't known, or have little significance. Such an approach is particularly difficult at the survey level. Further, a site number is required for both S.C. State Historic Preservation Office review.

Yet, in spite of the administrative need for a site number, the boundaries of the site are entirely arbitrary — limited to the north, east, and west by streets, and to the south by lot lines. The site includes at least eight lots, some of which have changed over time, as well as structures, which have also changed through time. In addition, we know that refuse disposal practices have also changed, further complicating the use of discreet site designations.

All of these issues, however, are well known to, and understood by, urban archaeologists. We offer the warnings only for those not familiar with the problems. The site number applied to this project — 38CH1644 — is intended to be used only for administrative purposes.

PREVIOUS ARCHAEOLOGICAL AND HISTORICAL RESEARCH

Charleston's Historic Preservation Plan

In 1971, Carl Feiss and Russel Wright were contracted by the City of Charleston and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History to conduct what was called "a definitive inventory of all historic architecture south of U.S. 17 in that portion of Charleston known as the Peninsula City" (Feiss and Wright 1974). Today, this would be called a historic preservation plan, and it included an inventory of some 2,500 buildings considered to be of architectural merit.

Properties considered to possess architectural or visual significance were rated and placed into one of four categories: Group 1: Exceptional; Group 2: Excellent; Group 3: Significant; and Group 4: Contributory. Group 1 building were considered to be of "the highest architectural design quality" which "must be preserved and protected *in situ* at all costs." Group 2 buildings were called "fine 'Charleston Style'" structures which were of "irreplaceable importance." Group 3 buildings were recognized to be of "good architectural quality of the Vernacular mode" and were recommended "to be retained and protected." The last category including buildings of architectural value without which the character of those buildings rated in Groups 1 through 3 would be lessened (Feiss and Wright 1974:11). Some buildings were also assigned an asterisk (*) to denote that as additional research was conducted the structure might be elevated in its rating. Others were assigned a minus (-) to indicate that alteration of the original fabric had taken place and that rehabilitation was necessary.

Six buildings in the study area were ranked. One, located at 85-87 Broad was given the highest rating by being placed in Group 1, although a minus was also assigned, recognizing that the facades had been altered. A second building, at 95 Broad, was placed in Category 2. The remaining four buildings, at 89, 91, 93, and 101 Broad were all assigned to Category 3.

We understand that the study tract is within the Charleston National Historical Landmark District, although the S.C. Department of Archives and History has no complete inventory of the various contributory properties (Dr. Tracy Powers, personal communication 1994). We have not received a response from our inquiry to Archives and History, dated June 25, 1996, concerning the presence of any National Register buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study tract or regarding the presence of any structures surveys for this section of Broad Street.

Archaeological Research

Although no archaeological research has been conducted in the study tract, three projects have been conducted on or adjacent to Broad Street. The first was the 1984 investigations by Elaine Harold of The Charleston Museum at 33 Broad Street, about a block and a half to the east of the Hollings Judicial Center Annex. This work represented only two and half days of research, which focused primarily on the recovery of materials from a cistern, but it nevertheless provided a glimpse of the types of deposits which might be expected in this area of Charleston and, as Harold observed, "was the first opportunity to collect information from an area of Charleston which had been primarily a commercial piece of property" (Harold 1984:1).

The historical research for 33 Broad reveals that in the eighteenth century the lot contained a series of building used as both home and shop, first by a tailor and later by a merchant. By the nineteenth century, however, the structures at 33 Broad appear to have taken on only commercial functions and the 1887 Sanborn Insurance map reveals only a series of offices at

this location (Harold 1984:9).

Excavations on the lot identified about 2.5 feet of stratigraphy, including evidence of the 1740 fire which ravaged this section of Charleston. Features included portions of perhaps two demolished buildings in the rear and side yard of 33 Broad. The collection of ceramics, while dominated by delft, also included an array of creamwares, pearlwares, porcelains, and even a small assemblage of whiteware — providing clear evidence of the lot's long and intensive use. Mean dates ranged from 1735 (for the lowest level of the excavations) to 1789 (for the uppermost level). High status wares, such as transfer printed pearlware and porcelain are fairly common, suggesting that the assemblage includes debris from the property owners' house. Also present, however, is a large assemblage of Colono ware, North Devon gravel tempered, slipware, and other more utilitarian wares.

Harold observed that the bulk of the collection was domestic, noting that:

> There was noting in the collection which could be regarded as related to the tailoring activity practiced by Trezevant who lived there in the third quarter of the eighteenth century. The only item specifically indicative of non-domestic activity is the crucible which might have been used by a silversmith or jeweler (Harold 1984:40).

This, of course, has been extensively expanded on by more recent work by Zierden and her colleagues, who have found that "dual-use" sites — those which contained buildings with upper floors devoted to living accommodations and a lower floor for commercial activity — produce refuse which often cannot be distinguished from purely domestic sites.

Intensive investigations have been conducted at the adjacent site of the United States Post Office/Courthouse Annex (on the southwest corner of Meeting and Broad streets) by Beverly Bastian and her colleagues at Gilbert Commonwealth in 1986 (Bastian 1987). The historical research for this project revealed that during the early and mid-eighteenth century the area was primarily residential lots for upper class merchants and planters. In the antebellum period the use gradually changed, and the area became more commercial with many of the buildings representing rented shop space or offices.

Unfortunately, Bastian's work was somewhat hampered by restrictions on work area imposed by the GSA contract (Bastian 1987:5-2 — 5-3). While the report does not specifically state the sampling strategy, it appears that only 1.8% of the total project area (or 2.5% of the planned annex footprint) was actually investigated using a series of four 3-meter units, three 3 by 2-meter units, one 2 by 2.5 meter unit, and one 1 by 9 meter trench (Bastian 1987:Figure 5.1). These were excavated using both a backhoe, as well as hand techniques.

The work was able to identify correlations in the stratigraphy, with much of the project area covered with upwards of 2.5 feet of fill post-dating 1889. Below this was Stratum 6 in the parking lot and Stratum 7 in park — representing the original A horizon soil from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Consisting of a compact, dark brown to brownish yellow sand, the artifacts in this zone dated from 1740 through 1890 (Bastian 1987:6-2). Below the artifact bearing strata in most areas was a brownish yellow through yellowish brown moist sand, which appears to represent sterile subsoil.

Although seven features were encountered, the greatest attention was understandably devoted to Feature 1, an abandoned well dating from the 1750s and 1760s which contained high-status refuse from John McKenzie, a Charleston planter best remembered for his involvement with the anti-British non-importation movement in the late 1760s. In seeking an explanation for the feature, Bastian and her colleagues suggest that:

> With the development of the 1767 plan to build an armory right next

> to his townhouse, John McKenzie may have decided that the neighborhood was going downhill and that it was time to move to a less commercial location (Bastian 1987:7-1).

Alternatively, they note that McKenzie's planned marriage may have required a move to a more stylish and fashionable townhouse. Regardless, the well was filled with domestic refuse from his occupation of the Meeting Street lot.

The absence of nineteenth century refuse to the north may be explained by land use which focused on rental office space for activities which likely generated little trash. Bastian, however, notes that it is more difficult to understand the absence of nineteenth century deposits to the south, where there were episodes of rental tenants. She suggests that this may have resulted in sheet middens, rather than concentrated deposits, or that the sampling program "however informed, simply missed" the deposits (Bastian 1987:7-3).

Bastian's work also revealed a rather distinctive (what she called "eccentric") faunal profile not found elsewhere in Charleston. Concentrating again on the filled well, it appears that McKenzie was partial to beef and mutton, eschewing fish. Bastian suggests that it may reflect the "idiosyncratic tastes of an Oxford-educated, aristocratic bachelor" or that it may reflect redeposition of material from other locations, perhaps the nearby Beef Market (on the northwest corner of Meeting and Broad) (Bastian 1987:7-6 — 7-7). Of course, if the faunal material is redeposited it seems likely that the other materials found in the well are also questionable, but this is not further discussed. Nor was it mentioned that the Beef Market might be as important a reason for McKenzie to move as the proposed armory.

In 1989 Zierden and her colleagues at The Charleston Museum conducted some brief investigations at the John Rutledge House about a block west of the project area at 116 Broad Street, on the north side of the street (Zierden and Grimes 1989). The existing double house was built in 1763 by Rutledge, one of the framers of the United States Constitution, but was radically altered by subsequent owners, including Thomas Gadsden, a major Charleston speculator in slaves and land. He added a third floor to the main house, as well as balconies. In the rear yard are a two-story kitchen/carriage house, as well as other assorted buildings. Through time the lot's length was reduced so that by the time of these investigations it did not extend beyond the kitchen/carriage house.

The work, conducted in anticipation of converting the house into an inn, included the excavation of five units. Three five foot units were placed in the rear work yard, a 2.5 by 5 foot unit was excavated within the rear carriage house, and a 3-foot unit was excavated under the main house (Zierden and Grimes 1989:46).

Assemblages from the site were divided into three broad temporal groups — pre-1760, 1760s to 1820, and post 1820. The Rutledge assemblage, from the 1760s to 1820, was used to help create the Charleston Townhouse profile — a pattern representative of federal/antebellum townhouses owned and occupied by the wealthiest and most prominent of Charleston's planters and merchants.

Excavations at the Rutledge House also revealed sheet middens in the rear yard in the vicinity of outbuildings, where units ranged from 3.1 to 4.5 feet in depth (Zierden and Grimes 1989:84). This divergence from the previously proposed urban/rural model of pits versus sheet midden suggested that urban owners of large lots tended to allow trash disposal in sheet middens near outbuildings, while owners of smaller lots tended to rely on other forms of trash disposal, including the use of pits.

The Rutledge excavation were also used by Zierden and her colleagues to develop a variety of status indicators. They discovered, for example, that table glass comprises a larger percentage of the kitchen artifacts at upper status townhouses than at middle status sites. Similarly, porcelain and transfer printed wares comprise a larger percentage of the recovered ceramics at townhouse sites than

at middle or low status Charleston sites (Zierden and Grimes 1989:Table 7).

Finally, the excavations continued to support the urban zooarchaeological model which focused on domestic fauna, especially cow. The elite diet was also quite diverse, containing a wide variety of wild taxa. Of special notice at high status sites is the presence fish remains and wild birds. Zierden and Grimes comment that:

> Basically, wealthy Charlestonians enjoyed a diet that was expensive; expense may be considered in terms of time invested, as well as money invested (Zierden and Grimes 1989:98-99).

The excavations at the Rutledge site also reveal on-site slaughtering and butchering, another indication of wealth for Charleston.

The most recent investigations in this area were those undertaken by Joe Joseph and Rita Elliott with New South Associates at the Charleston County Courthouse site on the northwest corner of Broad and Meeting.' This work, conducted in 1993, was initially focused on providing architectural information which would aid restoration efforts at the County Courthouse. This corner was first used as the site of South Carolina's first state house, begun in 1753 and completed in 1760. In 1786 the decision was made to move the capital from Charleston to Columbia, although this move was still in progress when a February 1788 fire destroyed the Charleston building. In less than a month funds had been allocated for the construction of Charleston's courthouse on the "ruins" of the earlier building. Although there were changes and modifications in 1883, 1926, and 1941, the core of the building has remained remarkably the same (Joseph and Elliott 1994:13-17). As the work progressed the discovery of a dense early eighteenth century midden expanded the nature of the work and the need for detailed analyses (Joseph and Elliott 1994:24).

The archaeological work included the excavation of backhoe test trenches to explore the site's stratigraphy, the excavation of 14 test units by hand, and the removal of 35 features.

Research identified evidence of the moat which surrounded Charleston from about 1700 to about 1718 when it was filled in. The unexpected eighteenth century midden appears to date from the use of the property as a public square and it rests on top of a hard packed clay lens thought to represent a prepared surface, "perhaps to facilitate the passage of street traffic through this area" (Joseph and Elliott 1994:88). The authors suggest that the dense midden, as well as that found by Zierden and her colleagues at the Beef Market (Calhoun et al. 1984), probably represents domestic refuse deposits indicating that the public markets were also acceptable dumping grounds for household trash. How far these midden or trash areas might extend is, at present, unknown, although Joseph and Elliott suggest that the debris were concentrated in the rear lot areas in order to keep the street frontages open and passable (Joseph and Elliott 1994:89, 94).

Like the work at the Post Office and federal courthouse to the south, the county property contained little nineteenth century soil accumulation and "virtually no nineteenth century artifacts" (Joseph and Elliott 1994:96). In this case the authors suggest that the site may either have been kept clean or (less plausibly) that later deposits were systematically removed during construction of the various additions.

Of course, Zierden and her colleagues have conducted research at a broad range of other urban sites in Charleston, including McCrady's Longroom, Charleston Center, Lodge Alley, Atlantic Wharf, First Trident, the Charleston Beef Market, Concord Street, the Exchange Building, the Meeting Street Office Building, and the Heyward Washington House (see Zierden and Calhoun 1984 for a synthetic statement concerning this work). Since 1984, The Charleston Museum has also published the results of investigations at 66 Society Street (Zierden et al. 1988), President Street (Zierden and Raynor 1988), the Williams Gibbes House (Zierden et al. 1987), the Charleston Visitor's Reception and Transportation Center on Meeting Street (Grimes and Zierden 1988), the Aiken-Rhett site (Zierden et al. 1986),

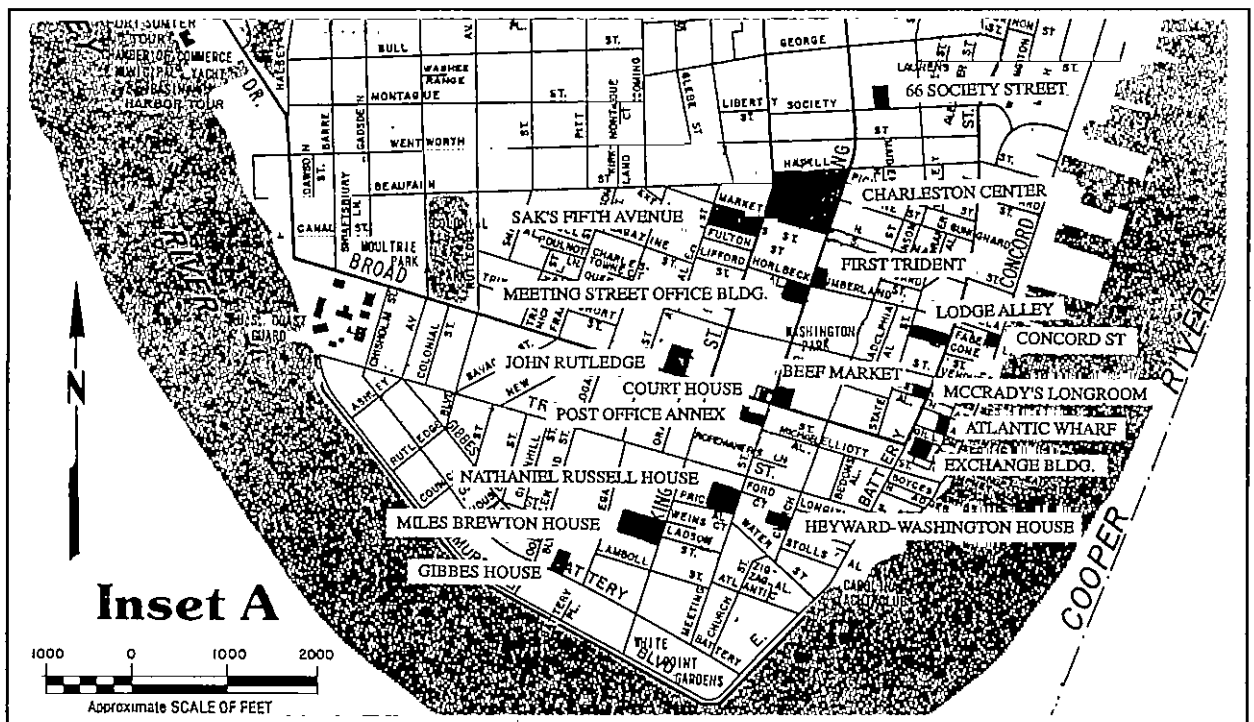

Figure 6. Excavated sites in the project area.

and the Joseph Manigault house (Zierden and Hacker 1986). Chicora Foundation recently explored the block of Market, King, Princess, and Archdale streets for the new Saks Fifth Avenue store at Majestic Square (Trinkley and Hacker 1996). The locations of archaeological research in Charleston are shown in Figure 6.

In a somewhat retrospective look, Zierden and Grimes observe that "a major breakthrough" in urban archaeological research occurred with the excavation of Gibbes and Aiken-Rhett houses:

> These sites were less complex, better documented; thus archaeological patterns were less ambiguous. Located in Federal and antebellum period suburbs, respectively, both sites contain the original standing structures and exhibit the original site boundaries. Extensive documentary information is available; they reveal that owner and occupants were one and the same, and both sites were occupied by wealthy families. The data from these two sites were similar in almost every respect, and both the faunal and cultural remains reflected the high status of the occupants (Zierden and Grimes 1989:4).

This paragraph speaks worlds of the problems involved in archaeological research (not necessarily in urban research). A tremendous amount of tentative explorations had to be undertaken before the right sites, able to address the appropriate questions, presented themselves. And while these two sites were certainly crucial, it is unlikely that they would have been so clearly understood, or as well investigated, had it not been for the research opportunities provided by the host of prior sites. Clearly urban research in Charleston has been, and continues to be, a painstaking process of incremental steps, each building upon, revising, or expanding previous research.

Archaeological Preservation Plan Recommendations For the Project Area

As previously mentioned, Zierden and Calhoun (1984) have prepared a detailed archaeological preservation plan for the City of Charleston. For different study areas they provide an overview of previous research, a synthesis of historic development, and recommendations for preservation efforts. The study tract is situated at the interface between two of their study areas. One they describe as "The Grand Modell — South of Broad Street" and the other is described as "Broad Street to Calhoun Street."

Although the "Grand Modell" or walled city included the area bounded by Water, Meeting, and East Bay Streets, the first study area includes not only this locality, but also the area south to White Point. During the Colonial Period this was the center of Charleston's commercial activity, with merchants concentrated on Broad, Tradd, East Bay, and Elliott streets (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:79). Through time commercial pressures resulted in lots being subdivided, with buildings most frequently encroaching on the interior of blocks.

But this area was not entirely commercial and Zierden and Calhoun note that Charleston "south of Broad" was a prime location for the residences. Within the commercial core structures were most commonly used for residences and businesses, resulting in "dual-use" sites. Outside the commercial core, however, the land use was primarily residential. They note that through time the "political and commercial center of town shifted to the intersection of Meeting and Broad," with upper class citizens tending to cluster around this core area. Less prosperous Charlestonians were forced to peripheral areas.

By the nineteenth century the area south of Broad had changed dramatically, becoming the most exclusive residential district in Charleston. Zierden and Calhoun observe that:

> property values discouraged the incursion of undesirables while the tradition of keeping the family home in the hands of relatives further restricted the market. Commercial use of this area declines in the early 19th century and had ceased entirely by the 1820s (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:81).

At the time of the preservation plan's creation only one site had been excavated in this area — they Heyward-Washington House site. There domestic deposits were found to depths of 3 feet and Zierden and Calhoun comment on the potential for discovering early (i.e., pre-1730) remains. Since the preservation plan additional excavations at been undertaken (and published) at the William Gibbes House (Zierden et al. 1987) and the Nathaniel Russell House (Zierden et al. 1995, 1996), dramatically expanding our understanding of high-status planter sites in the "south of Broad" study area.

Reflecting the emphasis on the more southerly "core" of this study area, characterized by residential property, Zierden and Calhoun comment that "it is unlikely that large-scale construction will take place in this district in the near future and the city is unlikely to be involved in this area" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:84). In spite of this they note that the area is of considerable importance since it offers "an excellent data base for the study of Charleston's upper class during the 18th and 19th centuries" (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:84).

For the area from Broad Street to Calhoun Street they note excavations at McCrady's Longroom, Lodge Alley, the Beef Market, the First Trident Site, the Charleston Center, and the Meeting Street Office Building (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:Figure 29). To this list may now be added the Saks Fifth Avenue location (Trinkley and Hacker 1996.

Zierden and Calhoun note that this portion of Charleston remained central to the economic activities of the city throughout the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Extensive use, re-use, and subdivision of property took place as property values escalated in reaction

to the need for commercial space in this central location. As space ran out, there was a gradual shift northward, such as the expansion of businesses along King Street. Occupation throughout the area was characterized by what we have discussed as "dual-use," that is a commercial establishment on the lower or street level and residential occupation, either by the proprietor or tenants, on the upper floors. Only the new suburban developments to the northeast and northwest, such as Ansonboro or Harleston Village, contained almost exclusively residential occupation.

Zierden and Calhoun remark that:

> This area is considered on of the most archaeologically sensitive because it is in this area that construction activity is centered. As Charleston continues to revitalize her "downtown" area, those areas of prior commercial activity will be the most affected. This is underscored by the number of archaeological projects that have already been conducted in this area. . . . As a result of these projects, quite a bit more is known about the archaeological potential of the area. Intact archaeological deposits usually continue to a depth of about five feet below ground surface, where sterile yellow sand is encountered. This is in contrast to the area below Broad, where deposits are 3.5 feet or less. Although occupation prior to 1700 has been suggested, or at least suspected, for most of the sites studied, closed contexts predating 1720 have yet to be excavated, although both 17th century and prehistoric artifacts have been recovered in small amounts. This suggests that the continuous, intensive occupation of the area may have obliterated intact evidence of early occupations in most areas. Therefore, the area north of Broad may best serve as a data base for the period of Charleston's commercial importance, ca. 1730 — 1840. Because construction is likely to continue to be concentrated in this area in the future, continued archaeological research in this area is essential (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:87, 90).

The historic overview will make it clear that the project area does not fit conveniently into either study district. Instead it evidences components and aspects of both — as well it should given its location on the edge of both. The initial assessment, for both areas, is that they represent some of the most significant property found in Charleston. Fringe areas such as the Hollings Judicial Center Annex property may be even more significant since they may be expected to show considerably greater diversity, and complexity.

A HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

An Overview of Charleston History

A number of brief historical overviews for Charleston have been prepared in the past decade — most notably those accompanying the series of urban archaeological reports prepared by The Charleston Museum. In addition, there are today a number of popular accounts of Charleston's history, such as Walter Fraser, Jr. (1989) or Robert Rosen (1982). There are, in addition, no end to the histories of Charleston with more specific focuses, such as George C. Rogers, Jr. (1980) or Kinloch Bull, Jr. (1991). Any of these can be consulted for additional, or more specific, information concerning Charleston. The goal of this brief overview is only to help place the following, more site-specific history, within a context capable of giving it greater meaning.

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were lured to the "New World" for a variety of reasons, including the acquisition of land and the promotion of agriculture. The Lord Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop, the marketing of which would provide great wealth through the mercantile system.

By 1680 the settlers of Albemarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper rivers. This new settlement at Oyster Point would become modern-day Charleston, while the abandoned site of the first settlement became known as Old Town and was eventually incorporated into a plantation known as Old Town Plantation. The move provided not only a more healthful climate and an area of better defense, but:

> the cituation of this Town is so convenient for public Commerce that it rather seems to be the design of some skillful Artist than the accidental position of nature (Mathews 1954:153).

In December 1671 Lord Ashley sent a commission naming Sir John Yeamans as Governor and instructing that the new town be laid out using a plan or "model" which has become known as the Grand Model. Streets were to be laid out straight, with the widest, 80 feet in width, parallel to the Cooper River. Later called The Bay or East Bay Street, it was actually laid out 60 feet wide. Certain back streets were to be 40 feet in width, such as Church Street, 60 feet in width, such as Meeting Street, and 30 feet in width, such as King Street. City blocks were to be 600 feet to a side (a situation which later resulted in the addition of numerous alleys in order to break-up these large blocks into more useful sizes). An example of the original plan depicts 337 town lots varying in size, but typically rectangular in size and (at least in the early years) about 100 feet in width and 200 feet in depth. Other lots were irregular in shape, since their followed the many creeks and sloughs which had yet to be filled. The "Grand Model" was centered on a square of two acres reserved for public buildings.

Early settlers came from the English West Indies, directly from England and from other colonies. But perhaps more than any others, it was the Barbadian elite who would set the Carolina culture apart from that of the more northern colonies, such as Virginia, and who would also establish the roots of cash monoculture and slavery (Sirmans 1966; Waterhouse 1975).[1] Coclanis notes

[1] Historian David Hackett Fischer, exploring what he considers to be the four basic British folkways in North America, also notes that another distinct colonial culture developed on the coast of South

that almost as many Carolina settlers came from the small island of Barbados in the decade of the 1670s as from England herself, causing him to remark that:

> Carolina — alone among the English colonies on the mainland of North America — felt the heat of the tropics from the start. Those that wish to understand the torridity of South Carolina's later history, its passion and its zeal, would do well to remember this point (Coclanis 1989:22).

The colony was in constant threat and considerable attention was directed to the defenses. The first fortifications were completed in 1704, enclosing only a portion of the Grand Model extending from Granville's Bastion (at what is today 40 East Bay) north along East Bay to Carteret's Bastion (at the intersection of present-day Meeting and Cumberland streets), then south to Colleton's Bastion (near the present intersection of Meeting and Water streets). From there it continued southeast to Granville's Bastion. Johnson's Ravelin, with the city gate, was located at the intersection of modern Broad and Meeting streets. What was known as the Half Moon Bastion (a portion of which can be seen in basement of the Exchange Building at 122 East Bay Street) stood at present-day East Bay and Broad streets and a moat extended along the west wall, fed by Vanderhorst Creek on the south and an unnamed creek on the north. Stockton (1986:5) notes that the south, west, and north walls were removed for expansion of Charleston after the Yemassee War of 1715-1717. The east wall stood until about 1787 when East Bay Street was widened.

It was during this period that the first wharves began to be created to bridge the low marsh ground and allow access to the deep water channel. As time passed these wharves became wider, more solid, and extended further into the channel. Stockton notes that:

> due to silting and infill, the "low water" lots on which the wharves were constructed became made land, extending the eastern shore several hundred feet beyond the "bold landing" or bluff . . . . Land-locked older portions of the wharves began to function as streets, lined with brick warehouses and paved first with cobblestones and later with granite blocks, but they continued to be called "wharves" (Stockton 1986:5).

Coupled with the creation of defenses and wharves were the earliest efforts to begin filling in the marsh and tidal creeks, creating more land for development. One of the largest areas within the walled city was the swamp at the present intersection of East Bay and Queen streets, which began to receive fill as early as 1706 and which had disappeared by the time of the American Revolution. Nearby Vanderhorst Creek lasted little longer, being largely filled by 1788 and replaced by what was called Water Street. Stockton (1985:5-8) describes the filling of other sections of Charleston coupled with the rapid pre-Revolutionary growth of the City.

As the City gradually outgrew first the walled area and then the Grand Model, a series of suburbs were created — Colleton Square (north of present-day Market Street) was laid out in 1739, Ansonborough (north of Colleton Square) was

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Carolina — created by families from the West Indies, France, and even Virginia. He notes that in 1790 three-quarters of South Carolina's low country population were slaves who came mostly from the Congo basin and the coast of Angola. He observes that, "these groups rapidly developed their own unique customs and institutions, which were closer to the Caribbean colonies than to the Chesapeake" (Fischer 1989:817). He describes the unique Gallah language; the building style which were an amalgamation of Caribbean, French, African, and English elements; and even recounts the exceptional wealth of the Carolina planters. Yet he comments that while this area became a distinct cultural region, "it never developed into a major cultural hearth." At least one reason for this failure was the "particular institution" of slavery which resulted in whites being a minority throughout much of this early period.

established in 1745-1746, Rhettsbury was laid out in 1773, Middlesex was subdivided in 1761. North of the Mazyck Lands were Harleston, laid out in 1770 and the Glebe Lands, laid out for St. Philip's Church in 1770. In 1769 Boundary Street (renamed Calhoun Street in the late 1850s) was run along the north line of these subdivisions. The area beyond Boundary Street was primarily developed after the Revolution.

Charleston suffered its first major fire in mid-November 1740. The fire, spread by brisk fall winds out of the northwest, consumed houses from Broad and Church to Granville's Bastion, as well as the buildings on the west side of Church Street from Broad to Tradd. Although under control in about six hours, the fire destroyed what has been termed the "best and most valuable part of the town" (Scott 1963:203).

Early agricultural experiments in Carolina involved olives, grapes, silkworms, and oranges -- all with less than spectacular success. While the Indian trade, naval stores, and cattle farming all were profitable to many of the early settlers, these endeavors did not provide the proprietors with the wealth that they expected from their venture. Attention was increasingly turned to rice and indigo as a means of establishing the mercantile system.

Rice and indigo both competed for the attention of Carolina planters. Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the proprietors with the economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system -- slavery.

South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By 1710 slaves were beginning to be concentrated on a few, large slave-holding plantations. By the close of the eighteenth century some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). And by the end of the century over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves. With slavery came, to many, unbelievable wealth. Coclanis notes that:

> on the eve of the American Revolution, the white population of the low country was by far the richest single group in British North America. With the area's wealth based largely on the expropriation by whites of the golden rice and blue dye produced by black slaves, the Carolina low country had by 1774 reached a level of aggregate wealth greater than that in many parts of the world even today. The evolution of Charleston, the center of the low-country civilization, reflected not only the growing wealth of the area but also its spirit and soul (Coclanis 1989:7).

From another, albeit similar, perspective Zierden and Calhoun suggest that:

> Charleston was the economic, institutional and social center of the surrounding region. The necessity of transacting business in Charleston drew planters eager to transform their crops into cash or goods . . . . it [was] virtually imperative for a planter interested in society to reside in Charleston at least occasionally (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:36).

They argue that Charleston provided an opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism which allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system (with this mechanism continuing through the antebellum period). It was, however, the plantation system's reliance on cash crops which made South Carolina so vulnerable to outside market and political forces.

The most obvious example of this was the

economic hardship brought on by the American Revolution. Not only was Charleston the scene of many military actions,[2] but the town was seized and held by the British for 2½ years, from 1780 to 1782. It is estimated that the British occupation resulted in the loss of slaves and property valued at over £300,000 sterling. In addition, the removal of Royal bounties on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos with the eventual restructuring of the state's agricultural and economic base.

After the Revolution, Charleston continued to be turbulent, with violence directed against suspected Tories and British sympathizers. A fire in 1778 severely damaged the waterfront, although it did not extend to the project area (see Stoney 1963). Animosity surfaced between the "aristocrats" and "mechanics" of the town, reflecting not only political, but also class differences. In an effort to create a new order, the city was incorporated on August 13, 1783, with a pro-aristocrat, Richard Hutson, elected as the first Intendent (later to become known as Mayor). About the same time, up country forces broke Charleston's strangle hold on state politics by moving the capital in 1786 to Columbia, where the General Assembly met for the first time in 1790.

The period from 1790 through the early 1800s was one of reorganization and expansion. Indigo no longer served as a profitable crop, although rice continued to be the gold upon which much of the Low Country was built. Gradually, however, cotton came to replace indigo, although it too was based on specialization in the production of a staple crop using bound labor. As Coclanis notes, "such specialization, under prevailing market conditions, generally proved highly profitable to those individuals in both the low country and in Europe with capital directly involved in the production or distribution of such staples" (Coclanis 1989:130).

Another fire hit Charleston in June 1796 destroyed "over 500 houses" resulting in a loss of about £150,000 sterling. Although the original French Church was burned, along with the popular City Tavern at the northeast corner of Church and Broad, again the project area was spared.

During the early antebellum period, Charleston began to expand and there were shifts in the location of its mercantile community. As the town expanded in the only direction it could, northward into the Neck, merchants followed their customers and King Street took on a new importance. The wharves remained important, attracting wholesalers, factors, and commission merchants, while King Street became the focus of the retail trade.

Like other industrialized, urban centers, Charleston also changed in other ways. A national economy gradually replaced the local and regional economies (see Goldfield 1977, Pease and Pease 1985). The chaos which characterized cities such as Charleston was gradually replaced by order. A central business district developed with specialized use of space (in Charleston there was increasing differentiation between the business district and the residential neighborhoods). In-migration increased (in Charleston the antebellum period saw an increase in Irish and German immigrants). The mercantile class continued to become more specialized. But perhaps most notable is that cities began to undertake broad improvements — streets were paved, sidewalks built, streets were lighted, and drainage was installed.

Charleston had recognized the importance of safe, well-lit streets in the late eighteenth century, appointing the Commissioners of Streets and Lamps. Major thoroughfares were first lit by oil and later by gas. By 1837 the lower city contained 1,722 lamps maintained by private contract (Zierden and Grimes 1989:33). Charleston's water supply was always a problem. A.F. Michaux in 1805 explained that, "at regular distances pumps supply the inhabitants with water of such a brackish taste, that it is truly astonishing how foreigners can grow used to it" (Thwaites 1904:122). As water supplies from these shallow

[2] One of the more entertaining accounts is Walter J. Fraser's (1993) *Patriots, Pistols and Petticoats: "Poor Sinful Charles Town" During the American Revolution.*

Table 2.
Dwelling Houses as Revealed in the 1848 Census

	Ward 1	2	3	4
Total # of dwellings	438	499	726	1126
% used as store/office	29.5	4.0	16.4	8.0
% inhabited	91.1	97.4	95.6	96.5
% brick	66.9	31.5	48.2	37.1
% owner-occupied	32.6	40.7	26.8	32.0
% not owned with multiple families	23.0	19.8	21.8	12.4

wells began to diminish in both quantity and quality in the early nineteenth century, they were replaced by cisterns to collect rain water. By the late nineteenth century the city began to establish municipally owned and managed artesian pipe wells.

The published *Census of the City of Charleston, South Carolina for the Year 1848* (Dawson and Desaussure 1849:20) provides a unique view of the project area. It provides a detailed accounting of housing in the four wards of Charleston, noting that the current situation was affected by the fire of 1838, which destroyed about 600 houses (see Smyth 1838). Some of this information is presented in Table 2, which reveals that Ward 2, which contained the project area at this time (the boundary line was Meeting Street), exhibited a very low percentage of dual-function buildings — dwellings also used as stores or offices. Considerably more commercial was Ward 1, just to the east of the study area over to East Bay. The buildings in the study tract also exhibit a very low vacancy — the lowest in Charleston at the time. Most, however, were still built of wood, perhaps because this area had been spared from many of Charleston's most series fires.

This same census provides an exceptionally clear view of Charleston's water situation moving into mid-century. The authors noted that:

> It was not deemed important to make any enquiries as regards the quality of the water supplied by wells, as for the most part it is not drinkable, and hardly fit for washing or culinary purposes. The water, however, bad as it is, is used by many families who have no cisterns, particularly in the western and upper parts of the city where the land is high and sandy; but to those living in the lower parts of the city, and accustomed to the use of cistern water, the well water, even the purest of it, has a strong saline and disagreeable taste, in fact animals from the country will sometimes suffer long from thirst before they can be brought to drink it (Dawson and Desaussure 1849:22).

Table 3.
Charleston's Water Supply in 1848

Ward	Well	Cistern	Neither	Multiple Sources
1	40.0	10.8	11.0	38.2
2	50.2	8.3	7.5	34.0
3	40.3	14.0	23.4	22.3
4	65.3	5.0	7.4	22.3

They also report that wells are rarely more than 12 to 16 feet deep, since going deeper penetrates a strata which emits "a feotid odor" (Dawson and Desaussure 1849:23).

Ward 2 reveals the second highest dependence on multiple sources of water (i.e., one or more wells and one or more cisterns), although it exhibits a low rank in percent of dwellings with only one cistern or with neither a well nor a cistern. This suggests that about half of the study lots may have depended on a well, with relatively few cisterns being present (Table 3).

Through the nineteenth century, however, the economy of the low country began to grind to a halt. By the eve of the Civil War, the tendency of South Carolina's economic and social fabric toward "structural disarticulation, factorial distortions, and asymmetrical development" could be clearly seen, if one chose to look.[3] Many historians, in fact, believe that Charleston's golden days were over as early as 1820. Coclanis observes that:

> just as the market was largely responsible for the low country's rise, it was largely responsible for the area's later decline as well. For its siren song lured the area into a pattern of economic and social development which was conducive to economic growth under one limited set of conditions - great external demand for plantation staples produced in the low country - but which would thwart progressive economic adjustments if these conditions ever changed, that is to say, if external demand for low-country staples ever faltered. And, as we have seen, external demand did indeed falter. It is possible, of course, that in the low country, a fragile ecological area with limited economic possibilities, development was doomed from the start. But by establishing an economy whose health was dependent almost entirely upon the vagaries of international demand for commodities, the hegemonists, in effect, sealed the low country's fate (Coclanis 1989:157).

Conditions in Charleston never really improved. As previously mentioned, the 1838 fire destroyed at least a 1,000 structures and caused in excess of $2 million in damages. Cotton prices continued to decline as more and more emphasis was placed on short staple cotton and more cotton was raised in the west. Charleston maintained some prominence politically, being the center of the Nullification controversy. In the 1820s and 1830s South Carolina sought to "nullify" the national tariff laws in order to better compete in the world market. On December 20, 1860 the bitter fruit of the Nullification Movement was harvested and South Carolina seceded from the Union. The first shots fired in the Civil War were on April 12, 1861 when Confederate batteries on James and Morris islands began bombarding the Union garrison in Fort Sumter.

Because Charleston was the "Cradle of Secession," as well as a major sea port, the city was a priority objective for the Union troops during the Civil War. Capturing Hilton Head Island in November 1861, they gradually moved up the South Carolina coast and began besieging Charleston in April 1863. By August 1863 the bombardment of the city began. As Confederate troops retreated during the evacuation of 1865, Union troops landed at the Cooper River wharves, beginning an occupation of the City which would last until 1879.

The city's greatest damage during this period came not from an act of war, but a fire which began at the sash and blind factory of W.P. Russel and Company in early December 1861. The fire moved rapidly across the town, encompassing about 540 acres and accounting for about $7,000,000 in damage.

After the Civil War Charleston was in ruins — politically, economically, and socially. Much of the city was damaged or destroyed, either by the relentless Union shelling or by the fires which swept through parts of the city on February 18, 1865. The city's banking capital was gone, insurance companies were insolvent, private capital

[3] Pease and Pease (1985:10-11) discuss this decline, noting that the *Southern Agriculturist* expresses the sentiment — "These 'terrible Yankees,' . . . are too deep for us, they '*undermine* us' as the cant term in Charleston is. Why will the Charleston people not '*countermine?*'" Pease and Pease comment that while the "Yankees" knew the ways of trade and practiced them to "get rich," Charlestonians refused to learn — "and starved."

was non-existent or limited, railroads were destroyed by war, and steamship lines were disrupted. The old form of labor — slavery — was no longer an option. Political problems were compounded by heavy taxes, assessed at more than the market value. For the first three years planters were unsuccessful at bringing in a profitable crop, resulting in large scale bankruptcies. Real estate prices reached their lowest levels in 1871.

It was the phosphate industry which would eventually help to put Charleston back on its knees, if not its feet. By 1880 there were 21 companies engaged in the mining and making of phosphate fertilizer in and near Charleston and the industry was the most profitable in the state.[4] Associated with the phosphate industry were manufacturing activities, such as lumbering.[5]

By the late 1880s Charleston's economy was once again on the verge of collapse. In 1890 Benjamin Tillman was elected Governor on a platform of "agrarian reform," intimidation of blacks, and a general hostility toward the State's only real urban center — Charleston. An increased tax on phosphates destroyed the faltering industry and by 1904 every river mining company had failed or suspended operations. Tillman also established a state liquor dispensary law.[6]

[4] The rise and fall of the phosphate industry in South Carolina occurred in a single generation. It is also ironic that South Carolina once again retreated back into rudimentary extraction and plunder requiring great labor but little capital. It seems that even after the Civil War, South Carolinians had still not learned the lessons of business and trade, and continued to "starve" in the words of Pease and Pease.

[5] Like phosphate mining, these "new" manufacturing activities hardly provided a solid economic base. They were almost all limited to raw-material processing and value-added operations. They provided the appearance of prosperity without providing any lasting improvements to the quality of life lived by most South Carolinians. Further, they provided a seemingly perfect route for the institutionalization of what amounted to a new form of slavery, forcing blacks to work for very low wages creating debts almost impossible to pay off.

[6] At the time of Tillman's election the state was in a heated debate over the sale of alcohol. Many were dismayed and angry at the large number of state licensed bars around the state. Tillman feared that further debate would tear his reform party apart and his compromise between the "wets" and the "drys" was to establish a state-monopolized whiskey industry, the profits from which would foster education. Enacted just before Christmas in 1891 the system sputtered along, amidst graft and corruption, for fourteen years. When initially enacted, an editorial in *The State* newspaper proclaimed:

> Some silly prohibitionists have supported this measure. Believing the sale of liquor to be criminal they have made the state and themselves partners in the alleged crime. Believing that men ought not to be allowed to drink they have aided in directing that the state shall sell them all the liquor they can pay for. Believing the profits of liquor selling to be the wages of the devil they have made a bid for a share of the profits. Believing barkeepers to be depraved, they have made the state a barkeeper. They have stultified themselves utterly. When they find out how completely they have denied their own faith, they will admit their folly in disgust and return to their original creed. — It is a scheme to fill an empty treasury. That's all. . . . (quoted in Huggins 1971:124).

When the system was repealed counties were allowed to determine whether to continue their own dispensary system for the sale of alcohol. Only six counties chose to retain their dispensaries: Aiken, Charleston, Beaufort, Florence, Georgetown, and Richland. Soon these counties were doing an exceptional business. Not content to leave well enough alone, and certainly pushed by citizens who still felt that the devil and alcohol were in league, the Legislature passed a law permitting the importation of not over a gallon of liquor a month by any one individual for personal use. Further a referendum was held in 1912 to determine the future of local option dispensaries. Huggins reports that:

Charleston never adopted many of Tillman's ideas. Throughout the efforts to curtail alcohol Charleston continued to drink. More than 300 "blind tigers," the forerunners of "speakeasies," operated in Charleston and the state dispensary system became their wholesale supplier. Fraser recounts how the City government, always in chronic need for revenues, decided in 1903 to begin fining these saloons $25 every three months (Fraser 1989:346-347). Charleston continued to be "wringing, sopping, dripping wet" throughout Prohibition (Fraser 1989:361).

It was during the last couple decades of the nineteenth century and the first quarter of the twentieth century that many features of low country life changed forever. An 1885 hurricane and the 1886 earthquake destroyed much of the progress made after the Civil War. Property damage from the earthquake alone is estimated at $5 to $6 million. The hurricane of 1893 and increasing pressure from other areas finally killed the crippled rice industry. By 1921 the boll weevil had reached South Carolina, destroying the long staple cotton industry and crippling the up country farmers.

The only bright news for Charleston came, in 1901, from their long adversary, Ben Tillman, by this time a United States Senator. In spite of Tillman's distrust of the low country, he succeeded in having the U.S. Naval Yard located at Charleston. Begun in the Chicora Park area north of the city, it later expanded its facilities and quickly became the single largest employer in the Charleston area. Another bright spot for Charleston was the South Carolina Interstate and West Indian Exposition of 1901-1902. Intended to advertise Charleston's commercial advantages, it attracted international attention to the city. More visitors came to Charleston during its six month duration, then had come to the city in the previous six years (Rosen 1982:124).

> Charleston, now a completely converted advocate of the dispensary, with a dozen dispensaries and some hundreds of saloons flourishing side by side in full peace and amity, and reaping a golden harvest from both, was the only county in the state to return a majority in favor of the dispensary (Huggins 1971:193-194).

Regardless, prohibition went into effect in South Carolina, under the gallon-a-month law on January 1, 1916. In 1918, after three years of prohibition, South Carolina was the fourth state to ratify the Eighteenth Amendment.

Maps and Plats Showing the Project Area

One of the earliest maps of the project area which also contains recognizable landmarks is "A Plan of Charles Town from a Survey of Edward Crisp, Esquire" (Figure 7, South Caroliniana Library, Map 3/1704(R)/1). Dated 1704, the map makes no reference to the "Grand Model" for Charleston and is perhaps a depiction based on reminiscences. Regardless, it reveals that the project area was outside the city walls, at the edge of a plantation called Holybush.

"A Platt of Charles Town" is believed to have been produced by John Culpeper for the proposed development in Charleston during the seventeenth century (see McCormick 1944:184-185 for additional information) (Figure 8, South Carolina Historical Society, loose plats; compare to the "Grand Model Plat of Charleston," prepared by Alfred O. Halsey in 1949 also in the South Carolina Historical Society, loose plats collection). Dated to about 1725, the Culpeper map reveals that lots have been laid out as far north as Beaufain Street. The project area was encompassed by portions of lots 103, 104, and 108.

H.A.M. Smith contends that lots 103 and 104 were granted to George Pawley on May 9, 1694 and that lot 108 was not granted by the Proprietors (Smith 1908). Yet the Royal Grants reveal only lot 106 being granted to Pawley (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Royal Grants, v. 38, p. 248). On the other hand, the S.C. Department of Archives and History Charleston Town Lot Book, reveals that lot 103 was granted to Anthony Boran and that this lot was bounded to the west by what would later become King Street, to the north by Broad Street, and to the south by the "French Church Yard." Lot 104 was also laid

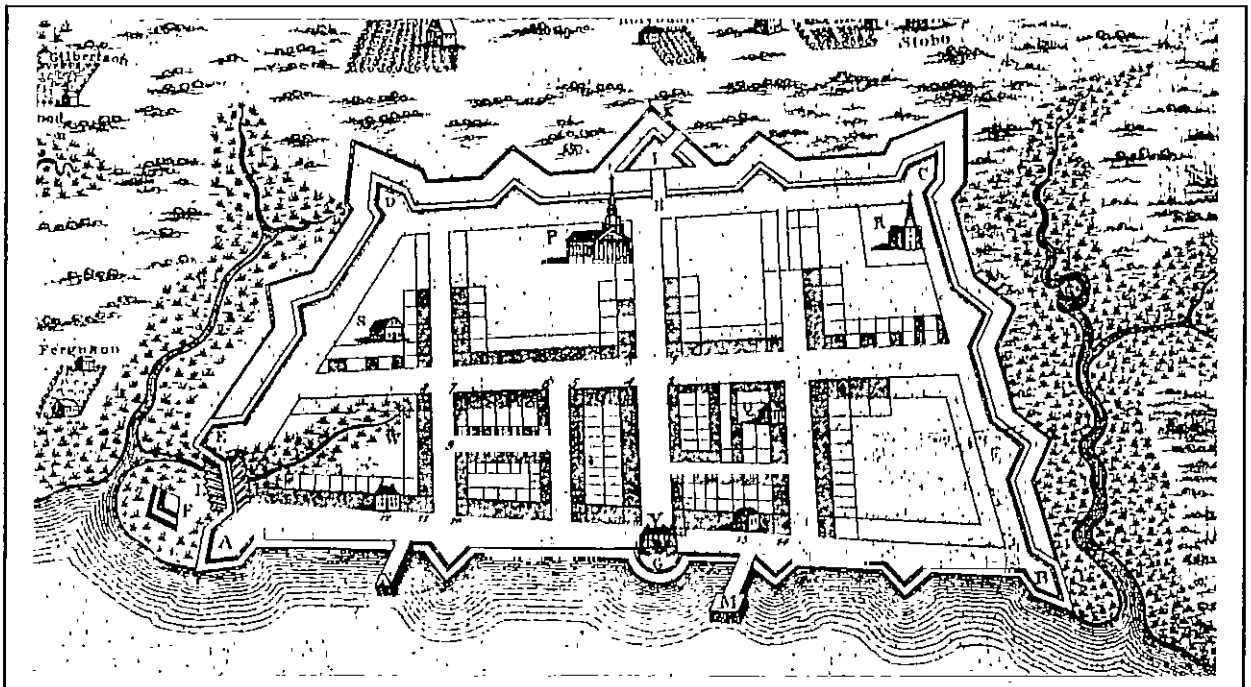


Figure 7. "A Plan of Charles Town from a Survey of Edward Crisp, Esq." in 1704 showing the project area.

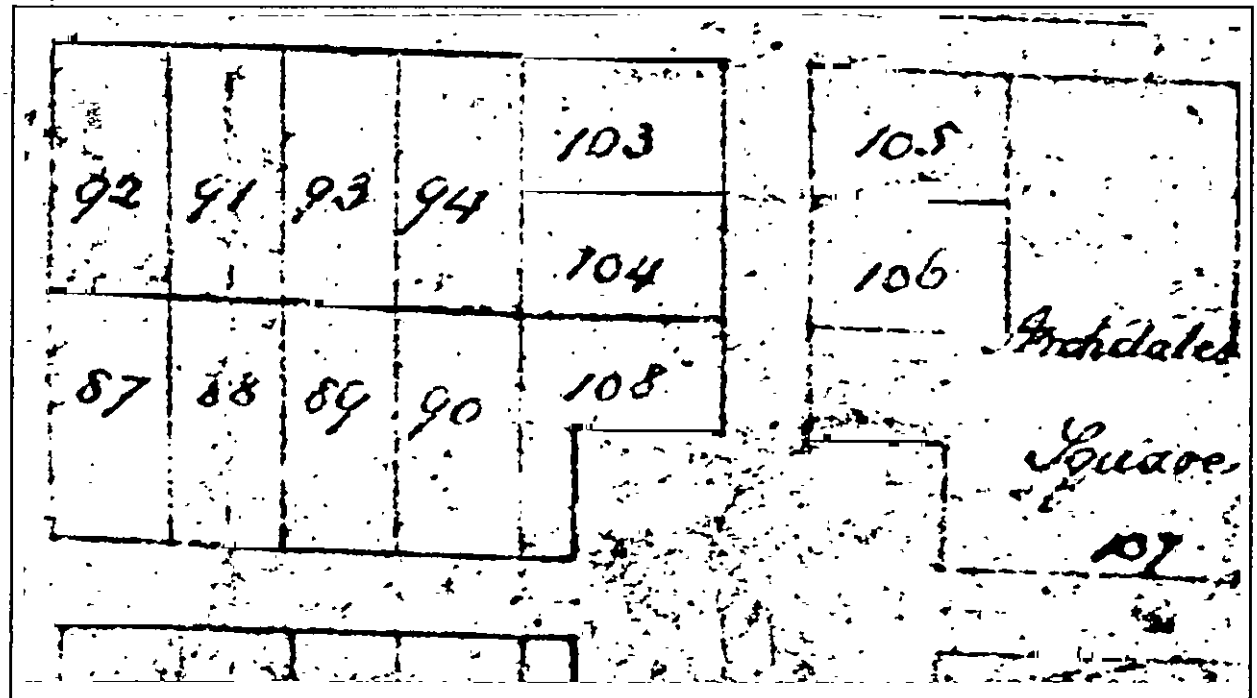


Figure 8. "A Platt of Charles Town," showing the original town lots in the project area about 1725.

out to Anthony Boran, to the east bounding on the lot of Pawley. In spite of this, lot 108 (along with lots 109,110, 111, 112, and 140) were all laid out to Bernard Schincking (S.C. Department of Archives and History Charleston Town Lot Book, 1678-1698). Consequently, the original owners of these lots is subject to disagreement.

Just a few years later, in 1739, "The Iconography of Charles Town at High Water" (Figure 9; South Caroliniana Library, Map 2/1739/1) reveals a nearly continuous streetscape of buildings along Broad from the public square westward to King Street. The lots no longer precisely follow the original plan, although vestiges are still obvious. Lots 103 and 104 appear to have been combined on this map, with some subdivision allowing for lots along King as well as Broad. In addition, the southern end of Lot 108 has been sold off, leaving the lot fronting only on Broad. Although the structures shown on this plan can't be convincingly associated with any modern lot number, the map does reveal that about two-thirds of the frontage on Broad in the project area was already developed.

One mid-century view of Charleston ("The Plan of Charles Town - With its Entrenchments and those made during the Siege by the English," printed in 1780, Figure 10) reveals only that the arsenal had been built on the southwest corner of Broad and Meeting.

More useful is the 1790 "Iconography of Charleston, South Carolina" (Figure 11, South Caroliniana Library, Map 3/1790/2). The block has changed since the 1739 depiction. While not completely filled in, the plan suggested that building was beginning to dramatically alter the character of the block.

The only plat identified for the project area prior to the end of the eighteenth century is that of two lots owned by Mrs. Thomas Singleton and surveyed in November 1791 (McCrady Plat 553; redrawn as Figure 12). This plat shows the structures at 97 and 99 Broad Street prior to the construction (and subsequent demolition) of the three brick buildings at 97 through 101 Broad.

The structure at 97 Broad was a 2½ story wood structure with a detached one story wood kitchen and a long storehouse, followed by two privies in the lot's southeast corner. The adjacent structure at 99 Broad was also of wood, and was 2½ stories high. Behind the house is another one story wood kitchen and a wood shed building. Although the plat is barely legible, it appears that both houses may have included a cellar, perhaps accounting for the half-story. Between the two lots was a shared pump or well. To the east, at 95 Broad, was the three story brick house of Peter Boquet and behind it his offices, a two story brick structure.

In 1802 the "Plan of the City of Charleston, S.C." was prepared "for the Patrons of J.J. Negrin's Directorial Register & Almanac." It shows the project block completely built out (Figure 13, South Carolina Historical Society, loose plats).

In 1805 the "Plan of the City of Charleston, South Carolina" (Figure 14, South Caroliniana Library, Map 3/1805/2) essentially repeats the Negrin map, although it may actually represent the city a decade or so earlier.

An 1844 "Plan of the City and Neck of Charleston" (Figure 15, South Carolina Historical Society, loose plats) fails to show any structural information for the project area, suggesting that other than the adjacent public building there were no occupants worthy of special mention or note. This map also reveals that the nearest fire wells were a block away — at either the intersection of King and Queen or at Tradd and Meeting.

In 1852 a very detailed map ("An Original Map of the City of Charleston," Figure 16, South Carolina Historical Society, loose plats) was produced by R.P. Bridgens and Robert Allen. It is particularly useful since it carefully recorded not only structures present at the time, but also at least some lot lines. We have compared the published map to the field note books available at the South Carolina Historical Society and have found that there are some disagreements. We cannot, however, determine if the field notes are correct

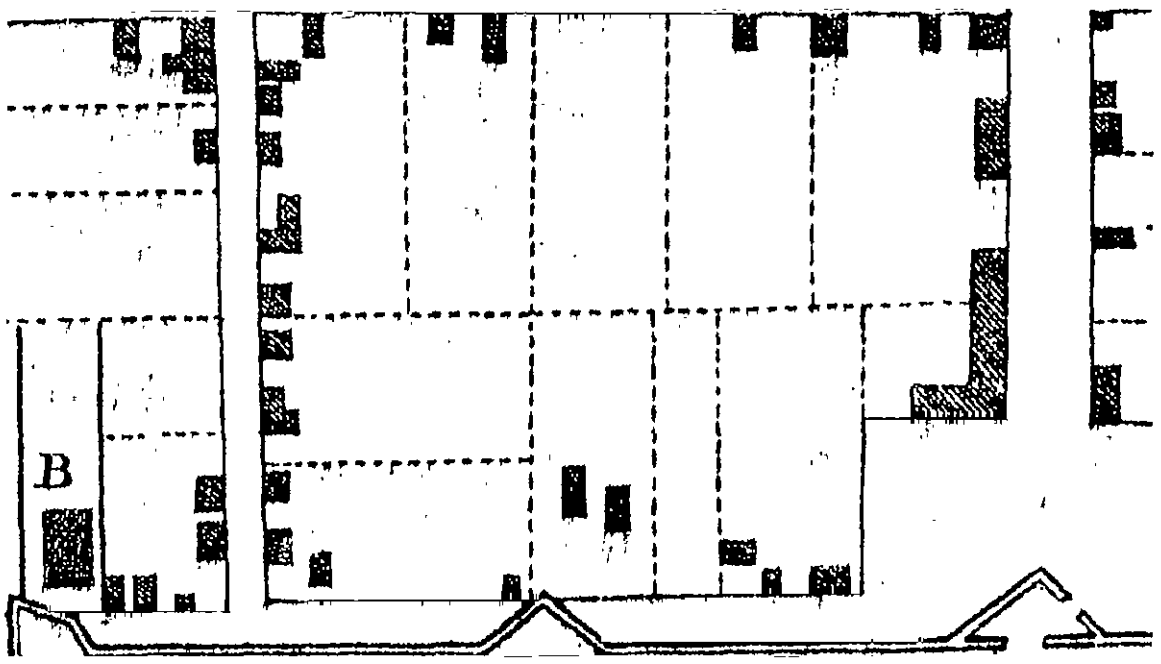


Figure 9. "The Iconography of Charles Town at High Water" in 1739 showing the project block.

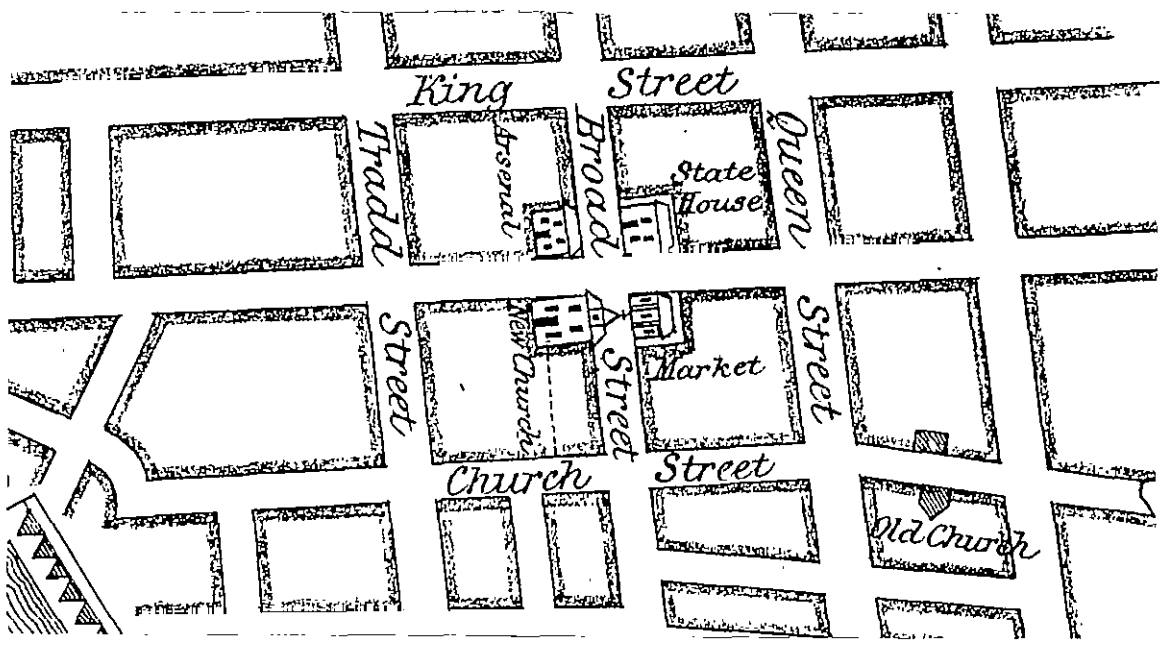


Figure 10. "A Plan of Charles Town," dating from 1780, showing the Arsenal at the southwest corner of Broad and Meeting streets.

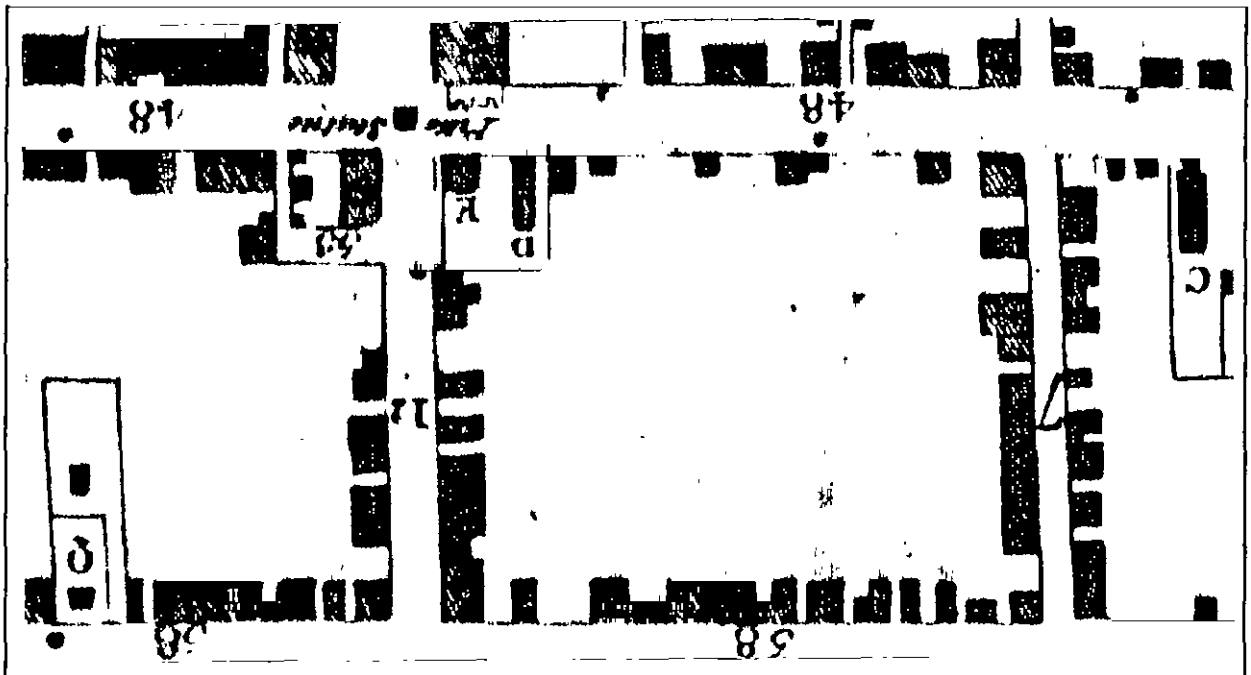


Figure 11. "The Plan of Charles Town," printed in 1789 showing the project area.

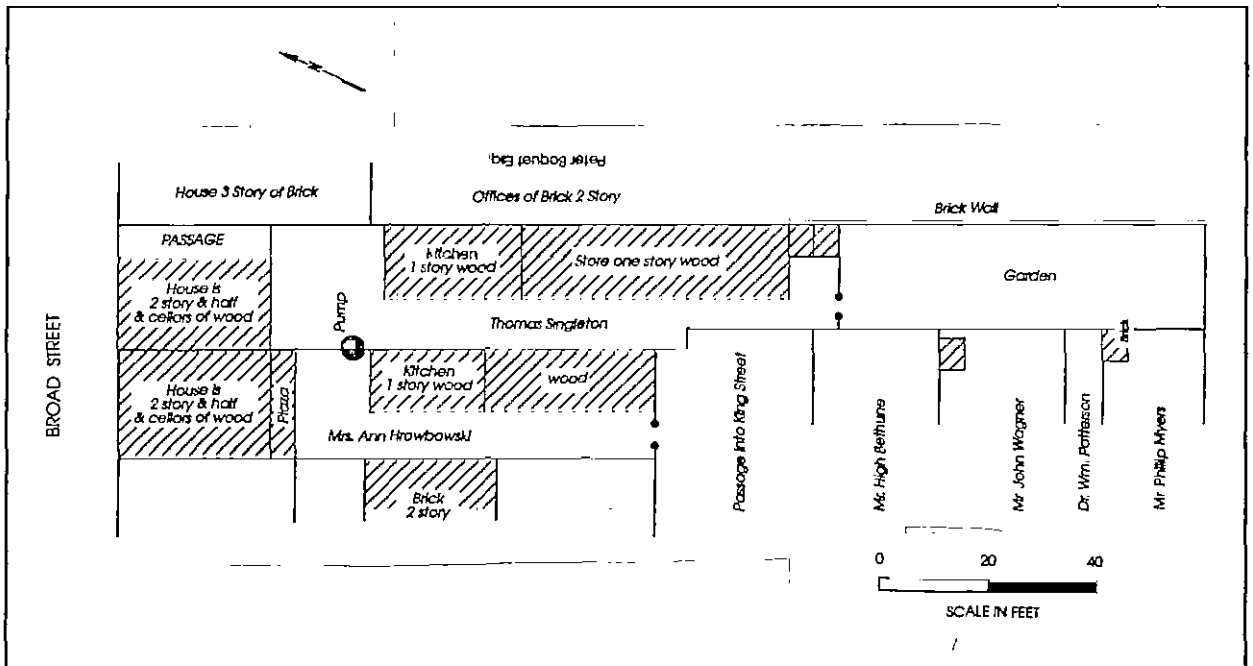


Figure 12. Portion of McCrady Plat 553 showing 97 and 99 Broad Street in 1791.

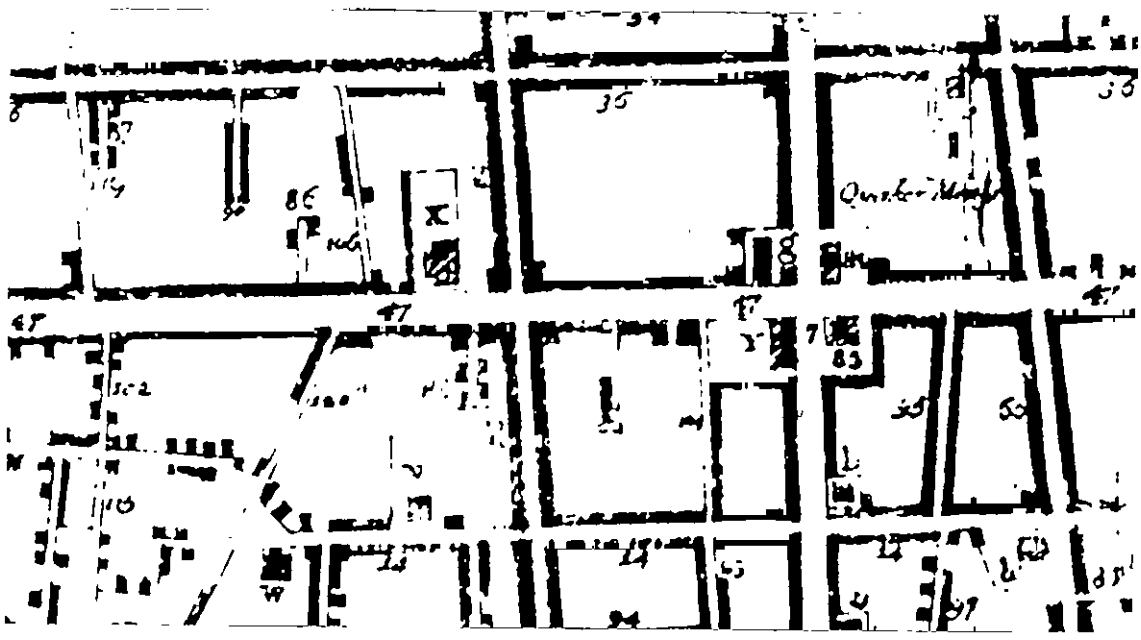


Figure 13. Negrin's "Plan of the City of Charleston, S.C." in 1802.

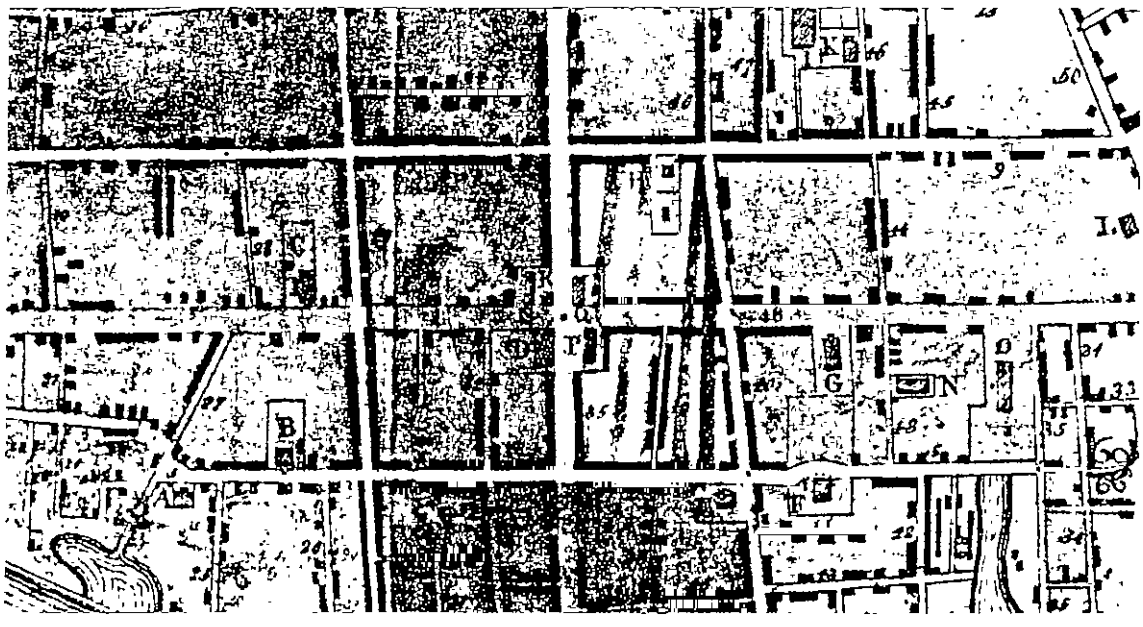


Figure 14. "Plan of the City of Charleston, South Carolina," dated 1805, but showing the project area as it may have appeared ca. 1790-1800.

Figure 15. "Plan of the City and Neck of Charleston" in 1844.

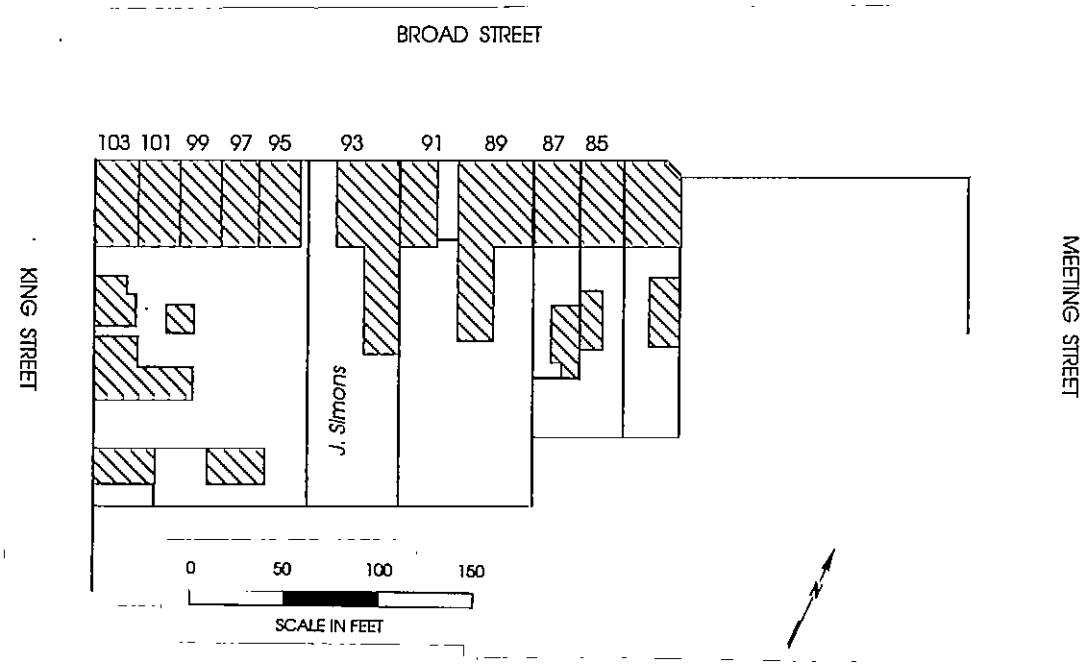


Figure 16. "An Original Map of the City of Charleston," by Bridgens and Allen showing the project area in 1852.

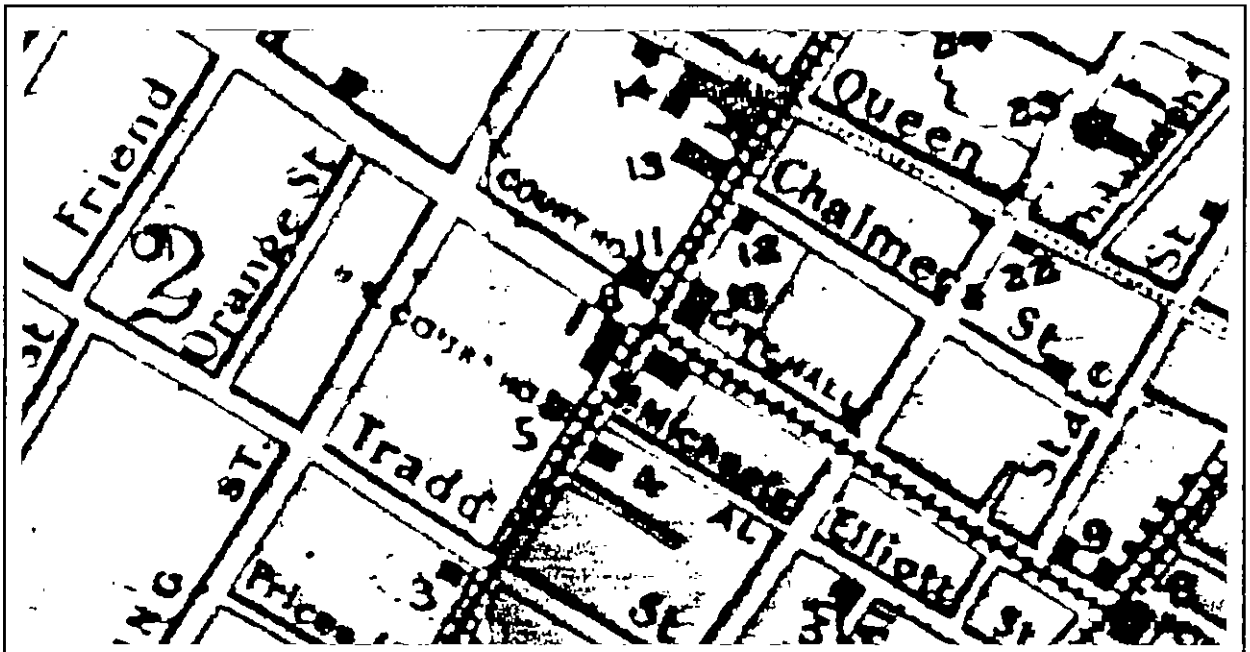


Figure 17. "The City of Charleston" in 1855 showing the project area at the eastern edge of Ward 2.

and the published map contains errors, or if the field notes were corrected prior to the actual publication of the final map. Given the uncertainty we have selected to use the published version.

Ten distinct structures are shown fronting Broad Street between the public lot and the corner of Broad and King, corresponding to 85 through 103 Broad. Careful examination of this map reveals that by this time the block had taken on its modern appearance. From this point through the mid-twentieth century the only major changes would be in the rear yards among the support buildings.

Adjacent to the city stables is 83 Broad, now under the Post Office. Beyond are 85-87 Broad, the double building still standing at this location. In the rear yard are at least two support buildings, built with a common wall, but slightly offset from one another. The yard of 85 Broad appears to be the larger of the two, coming behind the shorter yard of 87 Broad.

There is a narrow gap, still present today, between 87 Broad and its neighbor, 89 Broad. This building is shown with a significant rear extension, suggesting perhaps that a detached kitchen had already been incorporated into the main structure using a hyphen. There is also another gap between 89 and 91 Broad. Since this does not exist today it may be that one of these buildings has been replaced since the early 1850s or alternatively that the map is slightly inaccurate.

Adjacent to 91 Broad is the lot and house of "J. Simons" at 93 Broad. The plan shows the main house and a narrower rear extension. This suggests that there has been some reworking of the support buildings in the rear of the main structure. Regardless, this complex was built against its eastern lot line, leaving a side yard separating it from 95 Broad, which also had a side yard facing Simons' house.

The structures from 95 Broad through 103 Broad are all shown as very similar in size and it is difficult to distinguish one from another. No rear yard structures are shown and, given the infilling from King, it is likely that their yards had been

dramatically shortened by this time.

Over the next several decades a series of promotional or guide maps were published for Charleston. They provide information on street development, but offer little in the way of architectural detail or information on land use history. For example, the 1855 "The City of Charleston," one many maps printed by Walker, Evans and Cogswell (Figure 17, South Caroliniana Library Map 3/1855/4"), reveals that the project area is within Ward 2, but shows no structures — indicating only that none of special merit were present.

An 1851 plat (Charleston County RMC, PB A, p. 70) shows the structures on 97 through 103 Broad Street. The three identical two story brick houses built by Mordecai Cohen (see discussion below) are shown, as is John Hurkamp's grocery store and a series of buildings along King Street. While the three buildings at 97, 99, and 101 Broad Street may have had identical facades, the plat indicates that the rear yard arrangements for each was different (Figure 18).

The structure at 97 Broad, which is still extant, also had the deepest lot, extending just over 135 feet from Broad Street to the south. Along its eastern edge was a two story brick kitchen building and, further to the rear, a privy. Access to the rear yard was achieved at the western edge of the lot. The structures at 99 Broad were arranged similarly, although the shorter lot (only about 108 feet) required that the privy be built adjacent to the southern kitchen wall. Again, access to the rear yard was provided by a passageway along the western edge of the lot. The final building, at 101 Broad, still had the passageway to the rear yard along its western edge. In addition, the two story kitchen was also placed along this edge, as was the privy. A brick wall, on the 101 Broad Street property, was built from the kitchen northward to Hurkamp's store in order to separate the two lots

This section of Charleston seems to have changed little during the Civil War and into the postbellum. Drie's 1872 "Bird Eye View of City of Charleston, South Carolina" shows a densely developed block (Figure 19, South Caroliniana Library, Map 1/1872/1). The main police station at the corner of Broad and Meeting is clearly visible, as is the building which sat on 83 Broad prior to the construction of the post office. The next structure visible in the drawing is 85-87 Broad Street, although unfortunately its lower floors are obscured by the County Courthouse on the northeast corner of Broad and Meeting streets. The remaining eight buildings on this block have been condensed into four — clearly revealing the danger of relying on Drie for more than impressionistic observations.

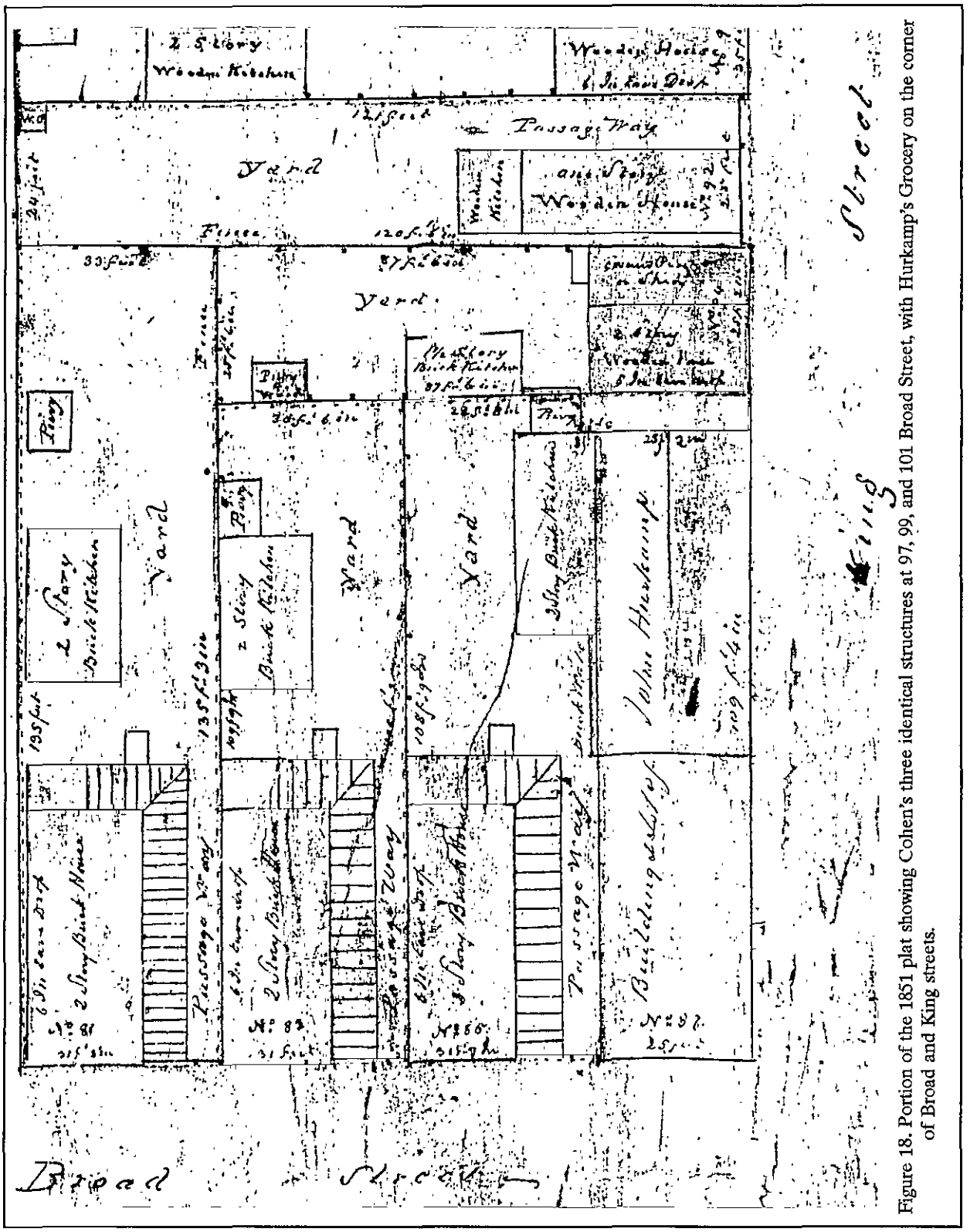
Much more useful are the 1882 City Block Plats produced by a surveyor under contract with the City of Charleston (Figure 20, City of Charleston Archives). The plan for the study area provides detail on not only the buildings, their construction, and the number of stories, but also on lot lines.

The double house at 85-87 Broad included back to back kitchen buildings, combined measuring about 28 feet square. Each was of brick and two stories in height, on a lot measuring nearly 140 feet in length off Broad Street.

The three story brick house at 89 Broad included a detached 2 story brick kitchen measuring 14 by 40 feet about 17 feet in the rear.

The three story brick house at 91 Broad also sat on a lot measuring about 210 feet in length and included a two story brick kitchen about 9 feet to the rear of the house. This kitchen measured about 14 feet by 26 feet and was situated on the east edge of the lot.

The lot at 93 Broad, which measured nearly 37 feet in width and 210 feet in length, was much more intensively developed. Present was the three story brick house fronting on Broad and immediately behind it a two story wood hyphen (about 20 by 21 feet) connecting it with a three story brick kitchen (measuring about 20 by 33 feet). To the south of this building was a smaller three story brick building (14 by 14 feet), and extending from this building to the back of the lot was a two story brick building (measuring 20 by about 100 feet) which may have been stables,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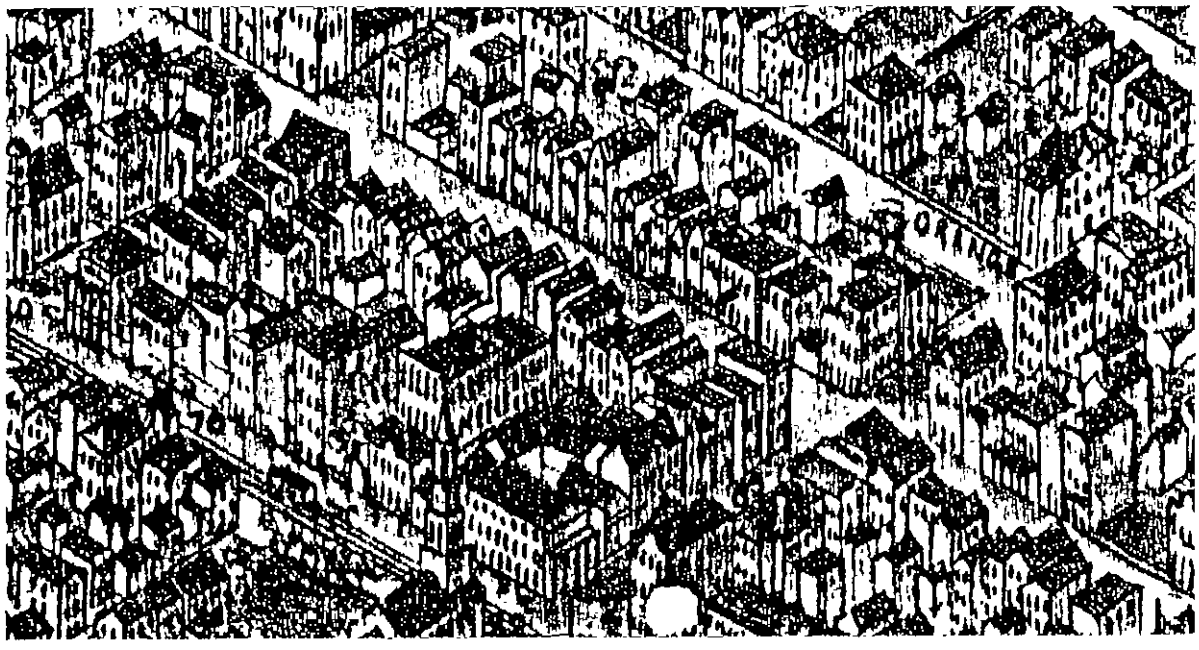

Figure 19. Drie's "Bird Eye View of the City of Charleston" in 1872, showing the project area.

servant's quarters, and perhaps storage.

At 95 Broad an equally complex lot layout is encountered. About 14 feet south of the three story brick house was a two story brick kitchen building measuring about 18 by 35 feet. Immediately behind this was a one story brick building, extending toward the rear of the lot an additional 31 feet. Across from these buildings, on the east lot line, was a third brick building, also only one story in height. This structure measured about 11 by 25 feet.

The 1882 block plat reveals that the lot layouts for 97-101 Broad had not changed since the 1851 plat (Figure 18).

This 1884 Sanborn Map (Figure 21) is almost identical to the 1882 City Block Plat, although it does provide additional information concerning the activities in the rear yards, as well as the use of the buildings fronting on Broad Street. The block was still primarily residential, although 89 Broad was selling fruit, 91 Broad was being used as a kindergarten, and 95 Broad was a drug store.

Only a few years latter, in 1888, the Sanborn maps (Figure 22, South Caroliniana Library, MFM/M-147b) chronicle still more change. The double structure at 85-87 Broad was now a boarding house, and all of the buildings from 89 through 95 Broad were commercial. Only the small houses at the west end of the block continued to be residential.

The 1902 Sanborn Map (examined at the City of Charleston Archives and corrected through 1934, Figure 23) reveals that over the next forty years the block changed little. Most of the rear yard structures remained intact and relatively few new ones were added. They continue to reveal a mixed neighborhood, with commercial and residential activities taking place next door to each other.

A 1931 map, "Zoning Committee Prepares Map Showing Use of Property in Charleston," prepared by the Charleston *News and Courier* (Figure 24, South Caroliniana Library, Map 2/c.

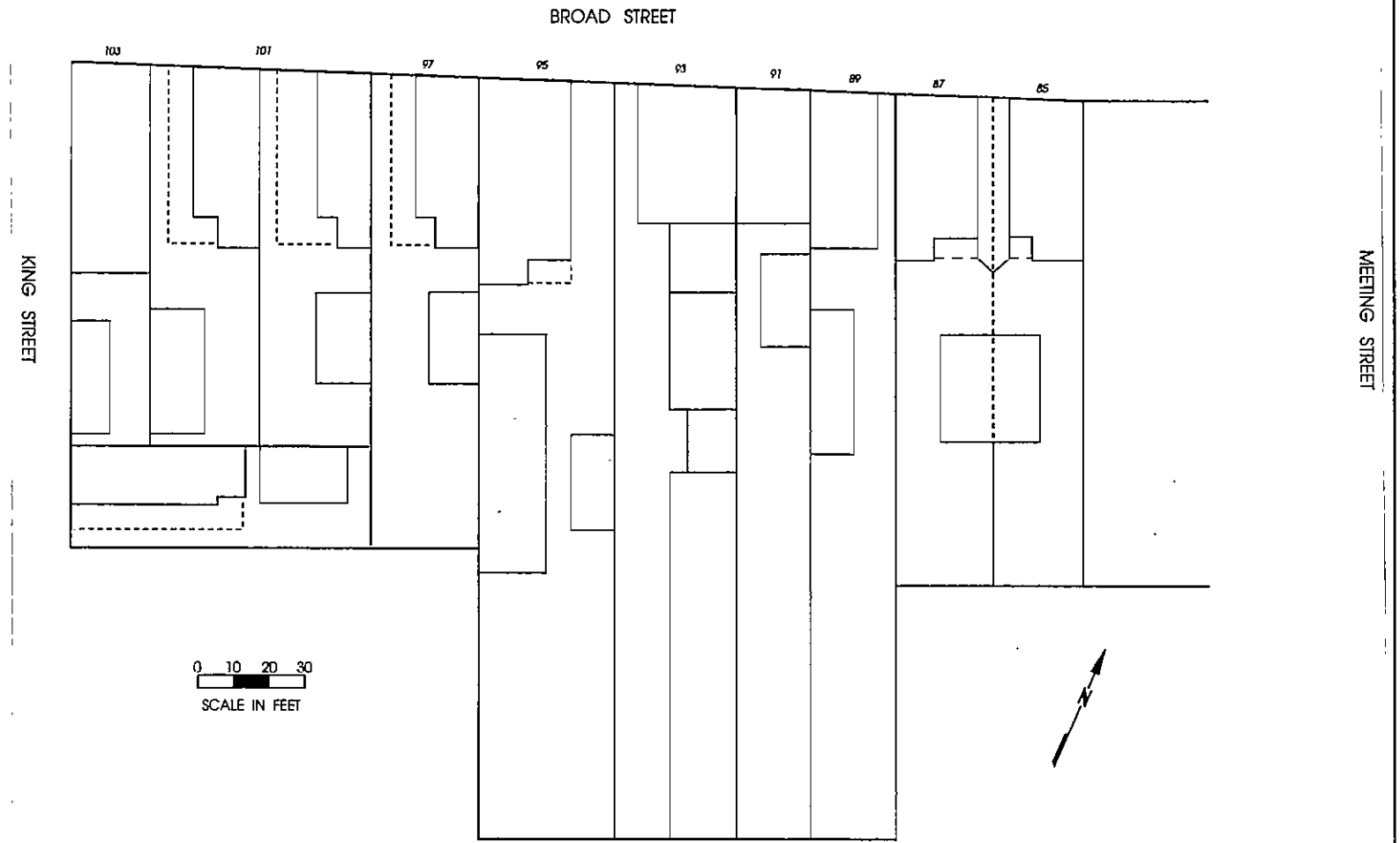

Figure 20. Portion of the 1882 City of Charleston Block Plat showing the project area.

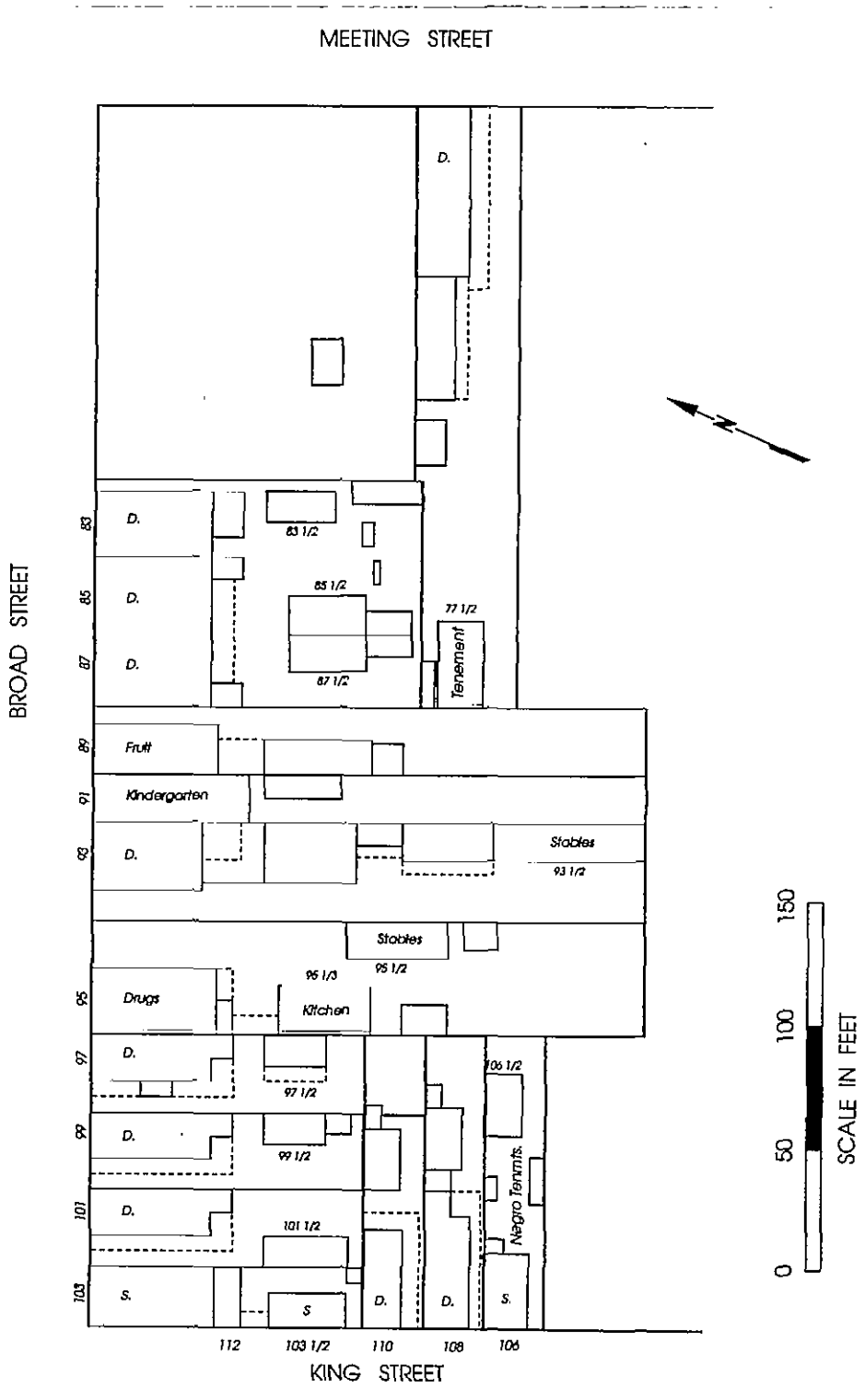

Figure 21. Portion of the 1884 Sanborn Insurance Map showing the project area.

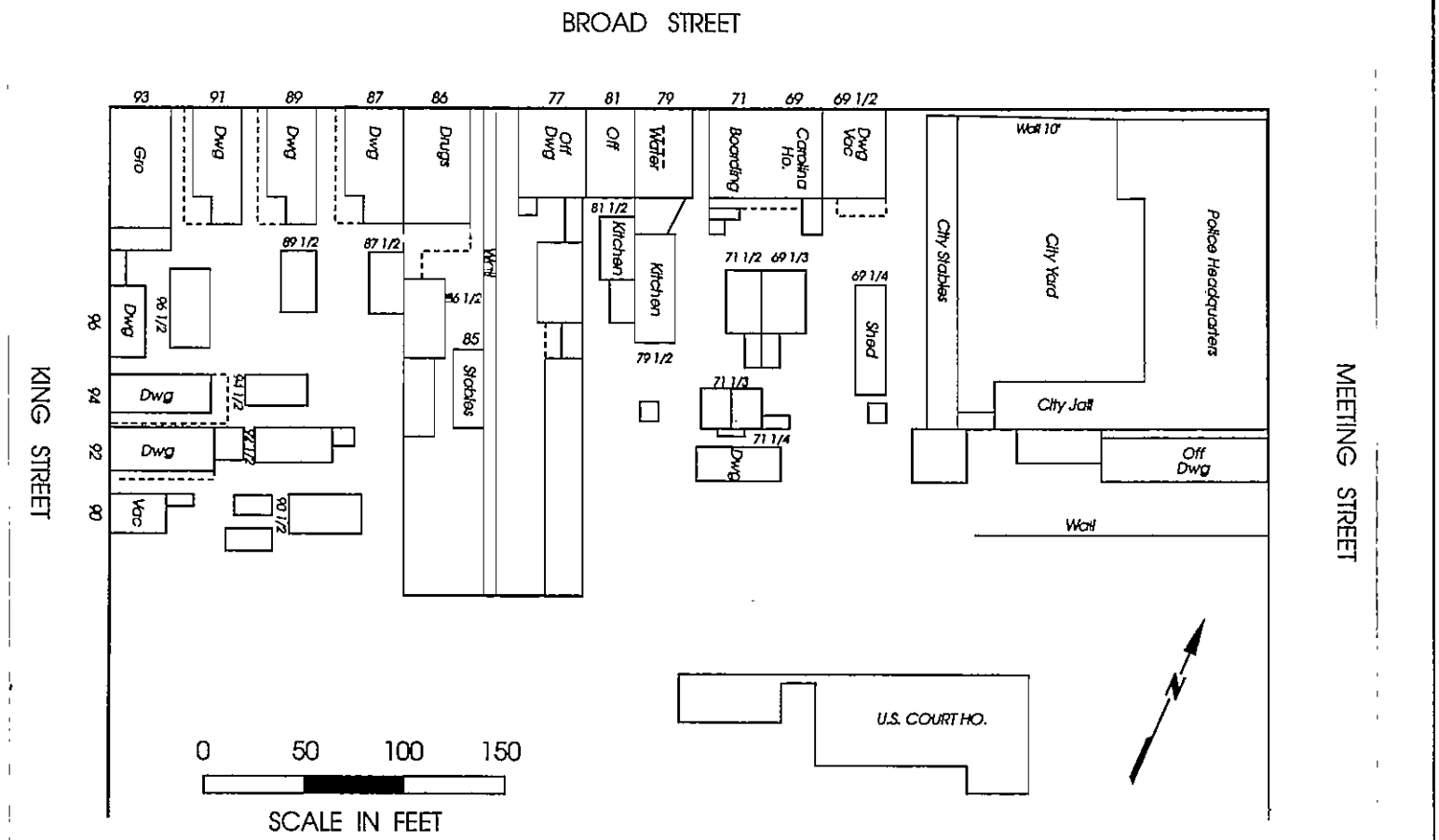

Figure 22. 1888 Sanborn Insurance Map for the project area.

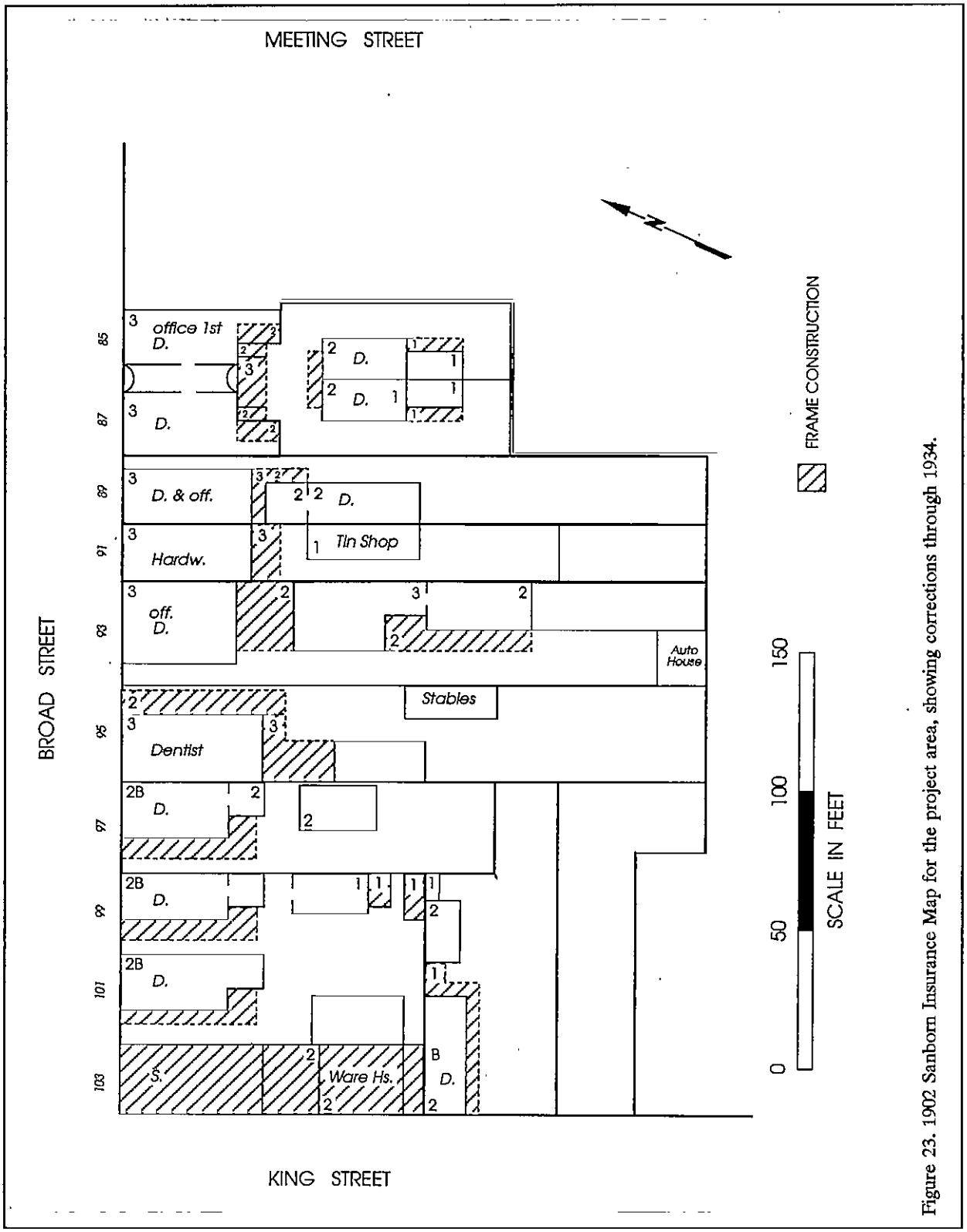

Figure 23. 1902 Sanborn Insurance Map for the project area, showing corrections through 1934.

1931/2) shows a solid core commercial activity on this block, encompassing 89 through 95 Broad Street and Hurkamp's grocery at 103 Broad.

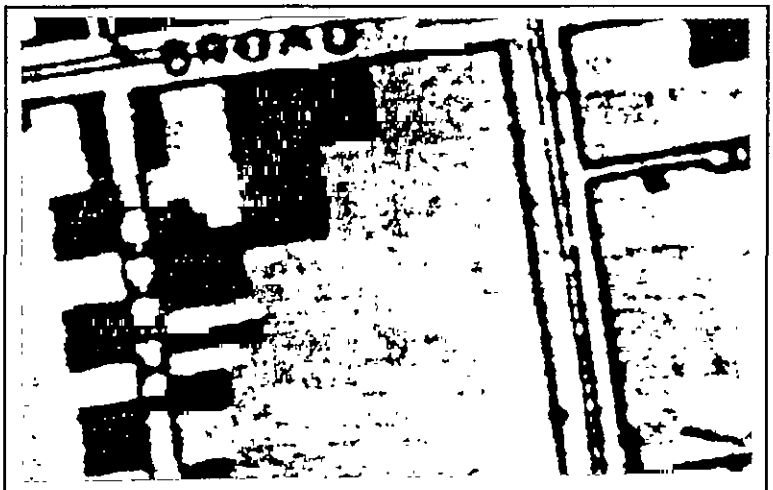

Figure 24. Zoning map for the project area in 1931, showing the location of commercial buildings.

The Charleston City Archives has a hardcopy of Sanborn Maps revised to 1951 (Figure 25), which illustrate the continuing transition of the neighborhood. By this time 83 Broad has been demolished for the post office construction. The double structure at 85-87 Broad, along with its rear double kitchens, is still intact. The lot at 89 Broad is relatively unchanged, although there is now infill between the house and the rear kitchen. At 91 Broad the house is still intact, but the rear yard has been extensively reworked. The two story brick kitchen building was removed sometime in the late 1930s and replaced with a larger structure which abuts 93 Broad.

The structures at 93 Broad appear to have been altered little since the late nineteenth century. The two story brick extension present in the late 1880s was apparently razed by early twentieth century and this rear yard area, together with much of the rear yard originally associated with 95 Broad has now been converted into parking.

The only structure remaining at 95 Broad by 1955 is the original house. The other three buildings present at the end of the nineteenth century have all been demolished.

The greatest change, however, is seen in the structures at 97-101 Broad. Two buildings, at 99 and 101 Broad, along with their rear yard outbuildings, have been demolished and in their place a grocery warehouse, the Piggly Wiggly store, had been constructed. Although 97 Broad remained intact, its rear yard kitchen had apparently been adapted to serve as part of the grocery store storage.

Photographic History of the Block

Beginning in the 1880s there are a series of photographs which show portions of the study area, primarily focusing on the facades or aerial views. While none of these views have been incorporated in this review, we will briefly mention a few of the more interesting.

Perhaps the best known of these views were a series taken from St. Michael's steeple, looking west down Broad Street. This view was published by Mazÿck and Waddell (1983). A larger and clearer print of this view is also available at The Charleston Museum (Broad Street Views, MK 3159).

In the foreground is the now demolished building at 83 Broad and, at the extreme lower left hand edge of the print, its detached kitchen. While 83 Broad largely obscures 85-87 Broad from view, the photograph does provide a clear view of its rear wooden addition and the northern third of the new demolished double kitchen in the rear of 85-87 Broad. A hipped roof and end chimney associated with the two story brick kitchen building in the rear of 93 Broad is also visible. Beyond this detail in the photograph is hazy, although more careful study would likely provide additional architectural details. Even at this rather gross stage of analysis the rear yards appear to be tightly constrained. Several appear to be vegetated with one two large trees, perhaps still retaining their previous function as work yards.

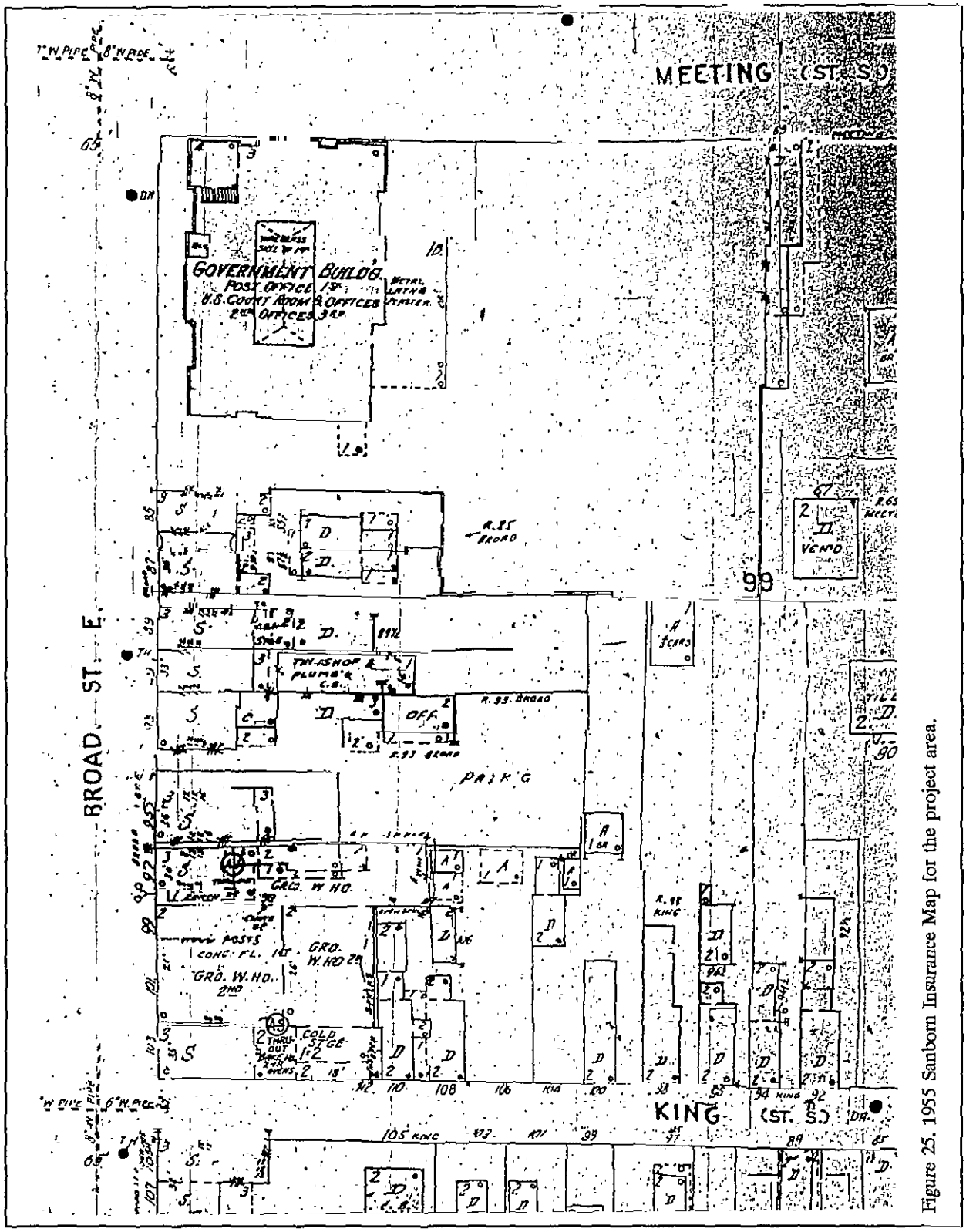

Figure 25. 1955 Sanborn Insurance Map for the project area.

Another photograph was taken from the steeple, showing essentially the same view, perhaps 20 years later (The Charleston Museum MK 3351). The trees bordering Broad have grown and both sides of the street are lined with electric poles. The post office has replaced 83 Broad and the roof of 85-87 Broad is just visible, as are the roofs of 89, 93, and 95 Broad (91 Broad is just barely visible). Perhaps of most interest, the wood shingle roof of 95 Broad has been replaced with metal roofing and two east facing dormers have been added. The rear yards also appear less vegetated and more "modern."

Table 4.
Correlation of Changing Broad Street Addresses in the Project Area

Modern Numbers	1793	1807 1809	1831	1840	1851	1852	1861	1882	1884
81			67	67		-	71	-	-
83			69	69		67	73	73	69½
85			71	71		69	75	69	69
87		39	73	75	67	71	77	71	71
89		40	75	77		73	79	79	79
91			77	79		75	81	81	81
93	44	44	79	81		77	83	77	77
95	43		81	83		79	85	85	86
97			83	-		81	87	87	87
99			85	-		83	89	89	89
101			89	95		85	91	91	91
103			91	97		87	93	93	93

1793, 1807-1809, 1851 numbers are from isolated plats and other documents; 1831,1840, and 1882 numbers are taken from the city directories for those years; 1852 numbers are taken from the City Ward Book for that year; 1861 numbers are taken from the City Census; 1884 numbers are taken from the Sanborn Insurance Maps for that year.

A view of the post office and St. Michael's Church taken ca. 1920 provides an excellent view of the rear of 85-87 Broad Street in the extreme left hand edge of the print (South Carolina Historical Society, 83 [sic] Broad Folder, 30-1). Of particular interest is a two story brick building which appears to have a shed roof which *may* be the double kitchens associated with 85-87 Broad.

The last photographs of special merit appeared in the book, *Charleston Then and Now* (Rhett and Steele 1974). A ca. 1890 photograph shows the south side of Broad Street from the corner of Broad and King. Present and clearly visible are the facades of Hurkamp's Grocery at 103 Broad, the three identical houses built at 97-101 Broad, and the facade of 95 Broad. What appears to be an alleyway or passageway separates 95 Broad from 93 Broad. While more difficult to distinguish, both 85-87 and 89 Broad are also present in the photograph. The companion photograph, taken in the 1970s, shows the same location, although two of the three buildings at 97-103 Broad have been replaced by the Piggly Wiggly store.

Architectural and Historical Observations

There is relatively limited documentation regarding the standing architecture on the block beyond the general synthesis developed by Robert Stockton and included in the *Information for Guides of Historic Charleston* (Stockton n.d.). This section will provide a brief overview of the information available by lot number.

To this can be added the information resulting from more detailed title searches, conducted only for 89 and 93 Broad (the two structures of special interest to Historic Charleston Foundation). The title searches were conducted at the Charleston County Register of Mesne Conveyance and went as far back as possible given the limited time allotted to this study.

In addition, this research explored a wide range of City Directories and other sources for additional information on both the owners of the various dwellings and also on how they were being

used. Of course, the greatest problem in the use of City Directories is that in the earliest editions street numbers were not provided and in later additions the numbers frequently changed. Table 4 provides an overview of the numbers present on the study block and allows correlations to made.

85-87 Broad Street

Stockton reports that Josiah Smith, Jr. a wealthy Charleston merchant, built this double building after purchasing the site in 1795 from Dr. David Ramsay for £1000, eventually transferring 85 Broad to his son William Stevens Smith and 87 to his other son, Samuel Smith. In his will, dated August 10, 1798, he bequeathed to "my two sons Samuel and William the two Lots and brick buildings thereon erected by me on the South side of Broad Street." William was an attorney while Samuel, according to Stockton, was a factor. Built for his sons, the structure was "finished . . . inside and out with considerable taste and attention to detail" (Stockton n.d.: 133). Built of Charleston gray brick laid up in Flemish bond, the building had a passageway extending through a central corridor into the rear yard. Behind the building was a double kitchen serving the main houses.

It appears that at least by 1830 85 Broad was being rented out, since the city directories reveal that R. Jones, a widow was living there in 1830. By 1840, however, 85 Broad was residence of Miss J.A. Smith, William Smith's daughter. She was apparently rented a portion of the house to the Rev. Thomas Magruder, the editor of the *Southern Christian Herald*. The only such paper by that title listed by Moore (1988:210) was a weekly Presbyterian newspaper begun in Columbia in 1834 which moved to Cheraw in 1836. It ceased publication in 1838 and Moore does not mention any Magruder being associated with its editing or publishing. By the 1849 city director noted that Miss Smith took in boarders and in 1852 it advertised "private boarding." Throughout the 1850s the property's assessed value increased from $4,400 to $5,500.

During this same period the city directories reveal that 87 Broad passed from Samuel Smith to his widow. It appears that she, too, began to take in boarders, perhaps even allowing some commercial activity. In 1831, for example, P. Melvin Cohen, a surgeon and dentist was living at 87 Broad, but we could not determine if he was also operating his office from the address. By 1852 the property was owned by Samuel Smith's daughter, E.A. Smith.

The first confirmed conveyance of 87 Broad occurred in 1859 when the heirs of Miss Elizabeth Smith sold the building to Dr. William H. Huger, a physician, who is reported to have maintained his office at the address until 1878. This, however, is not confirmed by the city directories, which reveal that Huger maintained his residence at 37 East Bay Street and likely rented the building. In 1869, for example, the resident was a fellow physician, William C. Ravenel. Prior to the Civil War the 1858 tax record for Charleston reveals that Huger was of the middling class, reporting only $1,000 income and listing only one carriage with one horse. Apparently his financial condition improved sufficiently after the Civil War to allow him to become a property owner (Charleston City Archives, List of Taxpayers of the City of Charleston, 1858).

Eight-five Broad Street was purchased from the estate of Miss Ann Smith (the heir of William Stevens Smith) in 1865 by George Alfred Trenholm, who was a partner in the blockade running firm of John Fraser & Company and also the Secretary of the Treasury for the Confederate States of America. By the early 1870s this portion of the building was valued at only $3,600, suggesting that relatively little maintenance had been put into the building during the Civil War.

The two halves were united again in 1878 by Simon Fogartie, a grocer (and liquor dealer), who lived at 96 Broad Street and later moved to 90 Broad. For a number of years he was a partner in Byrne and Fogarty, although by the 1890s he operated a grocery and saloon.

The building appears, throughout his ownership, to have been rented out. The city directories reveal that 85 Broad was home to such individuals as Thomas L. Booth, a student (1882) and Bernard Cunningham, a clerk (1892). In 1901

Dr. W. Peyre Porcher, who would later own the building, began renting 85 Broad out for his office. Also present were Lawrence G. Keogh (a clerk) and his wife Arline, as well as Mrs. Elizabeth Engel.

Eighty-seven Broad, in 1882, was listed as the residence of Mrs. Mary Morello who advertised a boarding house. Also at this address were Thomas Creaser, captain of the *City Point*; John B. Morello, a clerk; John Newman, a clerk; Claudius N. Poulnot, a carpenter; Henry Saunders, a sanitary worker; and John W. Nunan, who listed no occupation. In the rear, probably over the kitchen in the old servants' quarters was Benjamin Jones, an African American butler. By 1892 the only resident listed was Miss Octavia C. Martin, a schoolteacher. In 1901 this half of the building was listed as vacant, although by 1910 it had been rented to the Associated Charities Society. The secretary of the society, Mrs. Annie S. Walker, also listed this address as her residence, as did a Mrs. Janie S. Heyward.

Photographs of the building taken after the Charleston earthquake of 1886 reveal little damage to the building. Although the Charleston Fire Department report fails to report the condition of the walls, it does indicate that the building is "now ok" and the building sustained only $500 in damage. The post-earthquake photographs also confirm that by this date the facade had already been altered. Originally each entrance was flanked by windows. The doors, by 1886, had been shifted to flank the central archway, with windows placed where the doors were originally (85-87 Broad Street, File 30-04, South Carolina Historical Society; Peters and Herrmann 1986:Figure 83).

In 1918 the building was acquired by W. Peyre Porcher, a physician whose residence and business listing was at 85 Broad. About 1921 Porcher died and the building pasted to his estate. A portion of 85 Broad was rented to Dr. Hawkins K. Jenkins in 1921, with another section rented to Alfred and Virginia Schachle. By 1931 Dr. J. Austin Ball had his office at this address, along with The Jessamine Vine Studio (operated by Bessie Curtis, artist and poet). An apartment was rented to Harry G. Curtis, a machinist, and his wife Bessie. In the rear, now known by the address 85½ Broad, Mrs. Ella G. Snelson, a cashier, had an apartment. The portion known as 87 Broad continued to be rented to Associated Charities Society, although it was joined by the Ladies Benevolent Society. Like its sister building the rear kitchen had been converted into an apartment at least by 1931.

Around 1942 the building had been acquired by Leon and Nicholas Drake, who lived at 91 Tradd and 209 King respectively ("Zoning Law Cannot Stop Changing of 85-87 Broad," Charleston *News and Courier*, March 15, 1945). They were the owners of Drake Brothers Grocery and Drake Brothers Delicatessen. Preservationists found that Charleston's zoning laws could not prevent Drake from drastically altering the facade. Local architect Stephen Thomas was in the process of installing "new sore fronts" which were described as resembling "the sort of work now being done in New York." There was additional public outcry over the possibility that Drake intended to open a liquor store in one half of the building, although this was denied.

For a number of years the rooms at 85 and 87 Broad were rented out to mainly middle class blue collar workers and small families. There continued to be a few businesses also present, such as Dr. William P. Rhett and Joseph W. Cabaniss, an attorney. However, by 1950 at least part of the building was used as a liquor store by Leon Drake and the building had sifted from residential uses to almost exclusively commercial.

By 1968 the importance of the building was widely recognized, with Henry Judd, from the National Park Service, calling the structure one of the most worthy for preservation on the block ("Broad Street Building Is 'One of the Best'," Charleston *News and Courier*, September 2, 1968).

In 1972 the building was purchases by Marion B. Owens, Jr. for "preservation," which actually meant "adaptive re-use," with the building converted into a restaurant. An article reports that the upper floors were "fairly intact with original dentil trim, wainscoting and mantels" ("Double

House on Broad St. Purchased for Restoration," Charleston *News and Courier*, November 3, 1972). A series of photographs were also taken during this period, showing the progress of restoration efforts (85-87 Broad Street, File 30-04, South Carolina Historical Society). Another article, offering detailed observations concerning the construction of the building, was prepared by Robert Stockton later that same year.

89 Broad Street

The earliest record identified during this study was the 1740 sale of the property by Anthony Mathewes and his wife Ann to James Vouleaux for £ 800 (Charleston County RMC, DB V, p. 268). This price suggests that a building was present on the lot, although it was likely a frame structure. Only eight years later Vouleaux sold the lot to Paul Smyser (also Smyzer) for £ 1,000 (Charleston County RMC, DB H4, p. 90). Stockton notes that "the 1748 deed cites a dwelling house and kitchen on the lot, having one chimney per structure, indicating the structures were rather small" ("Brick House Believed Built by Watchmaker," Charleston *News and Courier*, September 8, 1990). This is a reference to the finding during the conveyance that "the funels of the chimneys of the Dwelling House and Kitchen" fell over the property line and an agreement was made to allow this "so long as the Brick works thereof shall stand" (Charleston County RMC, DB V, p. 268). While this may mean that the structures had only two chimneys, it may also mean only what it says, that two chimneys were built over the line.

Smyser was both a small planter and a local merchant. In 1751 he mortgaged the property to Peter Bocquet for £ 1,000 to pay a debt to Henry Perouneau. Little else was discovered about Smyser, although his marriage settlement with his wife, Hannah Elmes, revealed that she was "possessed of and entitled unto one negro or slave woman named Charlotte" and that Charlotte was sold to Hugh Alison for the very low price of 10 shillings (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Miscellaneous Records, vol. PP, pp. 586-589). The property eventually passed from Smyser to his daughter, Dorothea Smyer Lee (Charleston County WPA Wills, v. 21, p. 830-831).

Dorothea and her husband Stephen Lee conveyed the property by deeds of lease and release in 1786 to Joseph Cox, who by deeds of lease and release dated the next day, conveyed the property directly to Stephen Lee (Charleston County RMC, DB V5, p. 247, DB V5, p. 248). Stockton notes that this was a frequently used legal maneuver to allow Stephen Lee to gain full title to the property in his own name ("Brick House Believed Built by Watchmaker," Charleston *News and Courier*, September 8, 1990). This maneuver may have been a prerequisite for Lee's mortgage of the property (S.C. Department of Archives and History, State Treasurer, Commissioners of the Paper Medium, Mortgage Book B, 1786-1815, p. 376).

Stephen Lee was a Patriot officer during the American Revolution and was among the officers the British placed on prison ships in the Charleston harbor in May 1781. He was exiled from the colony in December of that year, but presumably returned, since he is listed in the Charleston City Directories residing at 89 Broad Street from at least 1790 through 1807 ("Brick House Believed Built by Watchmaker," Charleston *News and Courier*, September 8, 1990). Little else is known about Lee, although the Combined Alphabetic Index at the S.C. Department of Archives and History suggests that he was a partner in the firm of (Arthur) Downes & Lee after the Revolution. The 1790 city directory lists Lee as a "watchmaker," but by 1809 the only residents at 89 Broad are Dorothea Lee, listed as a planter, suggesting that she may have carried on her husbands planting interests, and Joshua Lockwood, Jr.

In 1825 the heirs of Stephen Lee, Paul S.H. Lee, Francis J. Lee, and W. States Lee sold the property to Joshua Lockwood, Jr. to be held in trust for Caroline D. Lockwood. This conveyance makes more sense if the relationship of the two families is understood. In 1757 Joshua Lockwood, the famous Charleston watch and clock maker (see Rose 1935) married Mary Lee, daughter of Thomas Lee. Their youngest child, Joshua Lockwood, Jr. married Caroline D. Lee, daughter

of Stephen Lee (South Carolina Historical Society 11/265).

In 1858 Caroline D. Lockwood's tax roll indicates that she owned $5,500 in real estate, likely this house at 89 Broad Street, and 10 slaves (Charleston City Archives, List of Taxpayers of the City of Charleston, 1858). The Lockwoods continued to own, and reside, at 89 Broad until 1869. During this period the value of the residence fell from $6,000 in 1835 to $4,800 in 1852. Residents include, in 1835, Joshua Lockwood, Jr. (a clerk at the State Bank), and Joshua W. Lockwood (an engineer). By 1849 Carolina D. Lockwood, Dr. States L. Lockwood (whose office was also at this address), and Joshua W. Lockwood were residing at 89 Broad, along with R.A. Long, who operated a boarding house at this address, and J.D. Yates, an attorney whose office was in the building. Both Long and Yates have advertisements appearing in the Charleston *South Carolina Gazette* between 1840 and 1842, suggesting that their tenure at this address was considerably longer.

Caroline D. Lockwood died in 1862 and her executors, Jacob H. Lockwood and States L. Lockwood sold the house and lot to Nicholas Fehrenbach for $4,000 (Charleston County RMC, DB H15, p. 469). Fehrenbach was apparently an entrepreneur who owned a restaurant and who also advertised himself as an "Importer and Dealer in Havana Cigars, etc." He apparently purchased 89 Broad as an investment since the city directories continue to list his residence and businesses at such addressed as 6 Broad and 125 East Bay. By the early 1870s, however, the assessed value of the property had plummeted to $2,400, the next year climbing to $3,600, suggesting that some repairs had been made. During this period this house was apparently rented out.

By 1877 Fehrenbach was unable to pay his mortgage on the property and was sued by the Lockwoods. The house and lot were sold by Hutson Lee, Special Referee, to Clementine H. Bernard for $2,300 (Charleston County RMC, DB V15, p. 133). Mrs. Bernard, the widow of S. Bernard, lived at 32 George Street and this was again apparently an investment with the records indicating that it was rented to a wide variety of blue collar workers. The residence at the rear of 89 Broad was one of the few buildings in the study area which seems to have been consistently rented to African Americans. In 1882, for example, James Washington, Samuel Washington, and Thomas Washington, all listing their occupation as waiter, were living in the old servants' quarters.

While the north and south walls were cracked by the 1886 earthquake, the building sustained only $300 in damage — probably limited to the chimneys and the need to anchor the two walls. At this time the building was in the Bernard estate and was being used as a store and dwelling.

Although the next deed for the property isn't recorded until the 1908 Master's Sale to Joseph Maybank for only $3,250, the City Ward Books suggest that the period from about 1889 on was a difficult one, with the property being variously listed as being held by E.C. Brinker or E.C. Bunken or by the Exchange Bank and Trust Company.

Maybank had his residence at 130 Rutledge (later 41 Meeting), but apparently maintained his office at 89 Broad. In addition, portions of the building were rented to both residents, primarily clerks and sales people. By the early 1930s, however, the building had been converted to exclusively business officers and in 1931 the Dawhoo Chemical Company, the Dwight-Matthew Company, The Crescent, and another physician, Dr. Harold J. Bowen, all maintained their offices at this address.

In 1946 Burnet R. Maybank (son of Joseph Maybank and governor of South Carolina from 1939 to 1941) sold the building to Nicholas H. Gianaris for $13,650 — a significant increase from the $3,250 paid by his father in 1908. The building continued to be rental property, Gianaris resided at 223 Rutledge and also owning property at 271 Grove. The main building continued to be used as office space while the rear building was frequently rented to students and secretaries.

91 Broad Street

This building has attracted relatively little historical attention. For example, Stockton notes only that it was probably built by James Pierson, a merchant sometime in the last decade of the eighteenth century (Stockton n.d. 135). We have been able to add little to his, finding that the early nineteenth century history is rather scarce. By 1809 the building was apparently owned by James Mackie, a merchant whose primary residence and place of business was on King Street. He continued to own the building through 1831, although his own residence had changed to Mazyck Street. In 1831 the resident of 91 Broad was listed in the city directories as Dinah Young, a widow. By 1840, Mrs. Margaret Mackie is listed as a resident. In 1849 the owner was H.P. Feugas, a French teacher, and his wife, Madame Feugas, a "teacher of dancing. In 1852, however, Margaret Mackie is listed as owner, although in 1860 she apparently no longer lived in the building and it was rented to a several boarders — including H.P. Feugas. Also present were three businesses — Madame Feugas, who "Teaches Dancing and French," William H. Ford, a physician, and John A, Michel, an architect. Both Fuegas and Michel advertised in the *South Carolina Gazette* (Calhoun and Zierden 1984).

By 1861 Fuegas is again listed as the owner, although his residence by 1865 was at 96 Calhoun Street. In 1869 the building was apparently rented to Mrs. N. Spady, who operated a boarding house. The City Ward Books also suggest that relatively little was being put into maintenance, as the assessed value drops from $4,000 in 1854 to only $1,800 in 1879.

In 1883 the property was apparently purchased by Louisa T. Blaine, who had been renting a room where she taught. The 1886 earthquake damage report reveals that the main house survived in good condition, although the kitchen in the rear "should be taken down" as it was totally wrecked. The report also reveals that this was the only house on the block with a tile roof. By 1892 Louisa Blain was a teacher at St. Patrick's Parochial School, with a residence at 8 Franklin Street and the property was sold to William M. Fitch, an attorney whose residence was 71 Rutledge.

By 1901 the building was owned by Josephine V. Smith, wife of Julius Smith, although Fitch maintained his office at 91 Broad for several years, while Smiths lived at 51 South Street. About 1905, however, Julius Smith moved his plumbing business to 91 Broad, transferring his residence to this address by 1921.

A 1901 promotional publication put out for Charleston's West Indian Exposition explained that Smith was "a sanitary plumber, gas fitter and tinner." It went on to announce that:

> he employs only the most practical and experienced mechanisms and guarantees satisfaction. He attends to all kinds of plumbing, gas fitting, tin work, etc., making a speciality of repairing and painting roofs, gutters, pumps, etc. (Anonymous 1901:130).

A similar publication dating from the 1920s announced that:

> Mr. Smith has supplied the plumbing work in some of the finest housed in the city . . . For modern and scientific plumbing, Mr. Smith is the man to be relied upon. He shows a nice line of plumber's supplies (Anonymous n.d.: n.p).

By the 1950s Julian Smith and Joseph Smith were also engaged in the business with their father. During the last 90 years that the Smiths have owned the property it appears to have only rarely been rented out for apartments.

93 Broad Street

The earliest recorded deed we have been able to identify for this property is the conveyance from William Hassell Gibbes, Master in Equity to

John Francis DeLorme in 1796 (Charleston County RMC, DB S6, p. 187). The deed reveals that William Greenwood, surviving partner of Greenwood and Higgens, London merchants, sued Elizabeth Bocquet (also spelled Bocquett, Bocket, Bockett, Bochett, and Bochet) in 1796. Bocquet owed their firm £ 5,000 plus interest and they desired the court sell his residence at 93 Broad in order to pay the debt. Elizabeth responded acknowledging the debt, but explained that all of her husband's other property had been sold off to pay what were apparently staggering debts and that "after a Life spent in the greatest Frugality and Industry she found her self at the Death of Husband Stripped of every thing with a Large Family to maintain." In consequence, she had refused to sell the house, hoping instead to raise her son, George Washington, and daughter, Mary at the residence. Nevertheless, the court decided in favor of Greenwood and the house was sold for £ 6,000 which was likely just enough to cover the complaint.

Peter Bocquet, the son of a Charleston baker, chose a path different from that of his father, going instead into the mercantile business. As Bailey and Cooper note, Bocquet owned at least one plantation (probably several), but he preferred the life of business over the life of planting. He was active in the American Revolution, being elected to the Second Provincial Congress in 1775 and serving as a major in the militia. He was arrested by the British in 1780. His estate was sequestered by the British and in December 1781 he was banished from South Carolina. He furnished hay and lumber to the Continental army and also loaned £ 4,500 to the state to help pay for the military efforts (Bailey and Cooper 1981:75-77; see also S.C. Department of Archives and History, Accounts Audited, v. 10, p. 376).

The purchaser of 93 Broad is considerably less well known. The S.C. Department of Archives and History Combined Alphabetic Index reveals that DeLorme was an active buyer and seller of African American slaves, suggesting that he may have engaged in the slaving business. In addition, he also owned at least one plantation, situated in the Goose Creek area (McCrady Plat 4192).

Perhaps of greater interest is the entry in the 1803 Charleston City Directory, which reveals that DeLorme was operating a longroom and providing entertainment at 93 Broad Street. That same year he advertised his longroom in the Charleston newspaper (Calhoun and Zierden 1984). Longrooms traditionally provided space for special, typically festive, occasions, serving as what we might call today banquet or meeting rooms. In contrast, taverns focused on providing meals, drink, and lodging. Apparently he was also renting rooms, since that same year a Mr. Young advertised a bookstore at that same address. A William P. Young advertised a bookstore at this address between 1803, moving to the north side of Broad Street by 1818 (Calhoun and Zierden 1984).

In 1807 the property was sold by DeLorme to John Mathais. Ehrick for $16,000, suggesting that the building must have been in very good condition (Charleston County RMC DB T7, p. 263). Ehrick was apparently a northern factor (his will listed him as being "of New York" and was filed in South Carolina since he had extensive holdings in Charleston). His Charleston business dealings were apparently through the firm of Ehrick and Reynolds and the S.C. Department of Archives and History Combined Alphabetic Index reveals 130 references to judgements in cares where Ehrick was either the plaintiff or defendant. He listed his Charleston address as 1 St. Phillips Street, suggesting that his 93 Broad Street acquisition may have been an investment.

In 1822 Ehrick's will devised the property to Lynde Catlin, Anthony Dey, and Jacob Valk in trust for his wife during her life and afterwards to be in trust for Sarah Valk, wife of Jacob Valk, and then to her heirs. Valk was a partner in the firm of Valk and (George) Keith, being the attorney which handled all of Ehrick's legal cases in South Carolina.

During the period the property was held for Ehrick's wife, it was apparently rented out, although the only individual identified with the building was Ebenezer Thayer, who was initially listed as a "broker" in the city directories, but who

quickly was advertising a bookstore at the address. Originally he appears to have operated the "Theological Bookstore," although by 1829 he was operating the "Cheap Bookstore" over the Theological Library. In 1831 he was operating a theological bookstore and circulating library and by 1832 was selling "Souvenirs and Books." In 1835 he was the "teacher of free school," and in 1836 advertised "exhibiting and displaying rooms" at 93 Broad Street. In 1840 this was the location of the Apprentice Library, although it is unclear if Thayer was still involved in the book business. In 1849 he was still listed at 93 Broad, listing his occupation as "teacher."

Thayer was also a prolific advertiser. Calhoun and Zierden note his ads begin in 1820 at 25 Broad and move into the project area by 1821 when he is advertising his "Cheap Book Store" listed at 79 Broad Street, "over the Theological Library between Meeting and King." He continues advertising through 1835 (Calhoun and Zierden 1984).

In 1850 Jacob Valk and A.E. Miller, trustees sold the property to James Simons for $5,000, a considerable decline from Ehrick's 1807 purchase price of $16,000. Simons apparently used 93 Broad not only for his residence, but also for his law offices, eventually including his son, James Simons, Jr., in the practice. Simons was a relatively wealthy attorney, claiming in 1858 real estate valued at $10,000, 8 slaves, one four-wheel carriage, one horse, and one dog. His income for the year was reported to be $5,000 (Charleston City Archives, List of Taxpayers of the City of Charleston, 1858).

Simons, like Bocquet before him, was of Huguenot descent. He was an honor graduate of the South Carolina College and considered one of the finest equity lawyers in Charleston. He served in the South Carolina House of Representatives for 20 years, including 12 as speaker. In 1861, as commander of the Fourth Brigade of the South Carolina Militia, he was in command of the forces participating in the initial attack of Fort Sumter. While he received a commendation for his service, a subsequent political difference with Governor Francis W. Pickens, barred Simons from further command. He resigned and volunteered as a private in the Marion Artillery (Stockton n.d.:136-137).

The Simons family held the property through several conveyances. In 1881 the heirs of James Simons passed the property to his widow, Sarah (Charleston County RMC, DB K19, p. 61) and in 1901 her heirs passed the property to Anna Maria Simons (Charleston County RMC, DB X23, p. 269). Throughout the nineteenth century the property was the main Simons home, while also serving as offices. When conveyed to Anna Maria Simons, the property appears to have been primarily rental property, although early on it was the home and office of Dr. Benjamin Simons, a dentist.

In 1925 the heirs of Anna Maria Simons conveyed the property to Carolina L. Hughes, widow of T.W. Hughes, for $8,000 (Charleston County RMC, DB Z30, p. 324). She lived in part of the building, while renting office space to Dr. Lawrence E. Knobelock, a dentist who first took up practice here about 1910.

In 1936 the property was sold to Marie B. Dingle for $13,000 (Charleston RMC, DB X38, p. 271). It appears that it continued to be rental property, with Mrs. M. Elizabeth Robinson offering furnished rooms for rent in 1942. In 1944, Dingle sold the house to Robinson for $12,000 (Charleston County RMC, DB T44, p. 69). Only two years later Elizabeth Robinson sold 93 Broad to Frederick C. Peters for $17,800 (Charleston RMC, DB F47, p. 289). Peters, whose residence was at 189 Broad, rented the building out as at least 12 different apartments.

95 Broad Street

Known as the Major Peter Bocquet House, this is a stucco on brick, three and a half stories, gable roof building which is thought to have been built about 1770. A photograph of the house with its side porch was printed in the Charleston *News and Courier* (December 13, 1954). The Historic American Buildings Survey has collected one exterior photograph of the building, three interior photographs, and four data pages (SC-264).

Additional photographs were prepared by Charles Bayless between 1977 and 1979 (South Carolina Historical Society, 95 Broad Folder, 30-1).

The early history of the property has not been carefully researched, although Stockton (n.d.:137) reports that it was obtained by Bocquet from his father in July 1770. It was likely disposed of, along with his other property, at his death. Stockton reports that Bocquet's widow sold the house, then occupied by Dr. James Clitherall, to Dr. Samuel Wilson in 1796 ("95 Broad Street: A Well Kept Secret," Charleston *News and Courier*, South Carolina Historical Society, 95 Broad Folder, 30-1). It continued to be owned by the Wilson family until 1861. During much of this period the Wilsons occupied the house, although by 1840 it was apparently either rental property or they were taking in boarders.

In 1861 it was apparently purchased by Mrs. Henrietta Gailliard, whose residence was at 72 E. Battery. During her ownership the house continued to be rented out.

In 1871 it was purchased by Dr. Edward H. Kellers who established his residence, office, and pharmacy at the location. The 1901 promotional publication put out for Charleston's West Indian Exposition announced that:

> For upwards of thirty years Dr. E.H. Kellers has been known, not only as a leading physician in our city, but as the proprietor of the best patronized and most complete pharmacy in Charleston . . . . A native of our city, Dr. Kellers graduated with great honor at the South Carolina Medical College, class '58, and for four years served as surgeon in the Confederate Army with great distinction. Thereafter he resumed professional practice in our city, in which he is an extensive holder of real estate, and opened his well-known pharmacy at 95 Broad street. The store is handsomely appointed and in charge of most competent pharmacists, and a very complete stock is carried. This embraces pure, fresh drugs, herbs, roots, chemicals, toilet and fancy articles, proprietary medicines, rubber goods and general druggists' sundries; all sold at the lowest prices for high grade goods. The compounding of physicians' prescriptions and household receipts is accurately and promptly done . . . . (Anonymous 1901:108).

Occasionally other businesses were apparently rented space, such as Bernard D. Schier, who in 1882 advertised cigars and tobacco from this location. But for the most part 95 Broad Street was used exclusively by the Kellers. The 1886 earthquake damage by the City Fire Department report notes that the building was used as a "store and dwelling" and that it survived the earthquake with only $250 in damage, apparently limited to the chimneys.

By 1905 the lot is listed as owned by the E.H. Kellers Estate, not being transferred to Emma L. Kellers, his widow, until 1918. The Keller family continued to live at 95 Broad Street, although they apparently rented office space to Dr. R. McIver Wilbur, a dentist.

In 1950 ownership was apparently transferred to Grebmorf Realty Company, from there passing to the Exchange Street Corporation. A 1954 newspaper article mentions a Joseph Fromberg, who may have been a principal in the corporation ("Historic House To Be Spared," Charleston *News and Courier*, December 13, 1954). About this time it was purchased by Roland H. Momeier, Arthur G. Momeier, and Frederick L. Momeier. Originally the plans were to demolish the house and use the open space as a parking lot for the adjacent Automatic Grocery (the forerunner of the Piggly Wiggly). This plan was altered when the local preservation community petitioned that the structure be saved and only the rear kitchen (for parking) and porch (for access) were demolished. These loses were considered

minimal since they were "not in keeping with the original structure."

The house saw a number of occupants, include Roland and Juanita Momeier, who lived there for a short period, Hartnett Realty Company, The Factors Walk, Janne S. Pitcher Antiques, and most recently John F. Ragsdale.

97 Broad Street

Relatively little is known concerning the early history of this lot, although Figure 12 reveals that a structure, owned by Thomas Singleton, was on the lot as early as 1791. It was likely in this structure, in 1829, that J. Darling, a portrait painter, rented an upper room. That same year Darling was advertising in the newspaper that he studio was at "83 [97] Broad, in an upper room" (Calhoun and Zierden 1984).

In addition, a November 1778 deed reveals that William Strother sold Thomas Singleton (who was described as a Charleston innkeeper and who had married Strother's daughter, Mary) part of lot 103 from the original plan. He specified that he had acquired the lot from his father, Charles Strother, a butcher who died in 1766. This property bounded Mary Cooper, "late the French Church" to the south and Peter Bocquet to the east. The deed also specified that a "tenement" existed on the property (Charleston County RMC, DB Z4, pp 115-119).

Stockton suggests that the extant building (as well as two identical structures at 99 and 101 Broad, now demolished) were built by Mordecai Cohen about 1835 (Stockton n.d.:138).

Mordecai Cohen was one of Charleston better known Jews. He immigrated from Zamosc, Poland in 1788 and immediately integrated himself into Charleston's business community as a merchant and planter. He was one of the two people most involved in the buying and selling of African American slaves (Hagy 1993:25, 94). Hagy observes that as "a man of great wealth, he assumed his position in the community and received duties and honors in return" (Hagy 1993:45). Cohen served as a Charleston's representative in the lower house of the State Assembly in 1845-46 and as State Senator from 1855 to 1858. Hagy also reports that "when Lafayette visited the city in 1825, city leaders borrowed his gold and silver plate to help entertain the Frenchman" (Hagy 1993:194). Elizas comments that he was one of the most extensive real estate investors in Charleston, in addition he served as Commissioner of Markets from 1826 to 1832, was a director of the Wilmington and Raleigh Railroad, and was a Commissioner of the Orphan House from 1836 to 1844 (Elizas 1905:188). His residence was typically shown in the city directories as 103 Broad Street.

In 1836, 97 Broad was listed as the shop for D.J. Dowling, Printer and Bookbinder (Dowling's ad also appeared in the 1829 Charleston newspaper) and in 1852 a McCready was renting at 95 Broad.

Cohen died in 1848 and his will specified that his Broad Street property was to be sold (Charleston County WPA Wills, v. 44, p. 356). Between 1852 and 1861 the property is listed under the name T.W. Mordecai, as trustee and by 1871 is shown as belonging to the Mrs. L.C. Mordecai estate where it remains until 1886.

During this period from just prior to Civil War through the late 1880s the property was rented to a variety of individuals. The city directories suggest that the renters were typically single families, usually white collar. In 1860, for example, the house was occupied by J.J. Guerard of the factorage firm of Wardlaw, Walker and Company. In 1869 the occupant was H.P. Feugas (previously discussed at 91 Broad). In 1882 two individuals were listed at this address. One was Eliza M. Guerard, widow of Jacob Guerard, possibly the J.J. Guerard shown as a renter in 1860. Also at this address was Thomas W. Thayer, a notary public (who continued renting through at least 1901, serving as the chief clerk of the post office and eventually as the district court clerk).

In 1886 the property apparently was owned by T. Moultrie Mordecai, although within a few years he is shown as a joint owner with the Exchange Bank and Trust Company. Mordecai was

an attorney and for a number of years after the turn of the century served as a Commissioner of the City Orphan Asylum (Elizas 1905:263). By 1913 the property is owned by Washington Real Estate and in 1918 the owner is again listed as the Exchange Bank and Trust Company. In 1930 ownership was listed as Carolina Realty Corporation. Throughout these transfers the building continued to be rented primarily to single families.

In 1942 the property was purchased by Frederick C. Peters, a Charleston Alderman and president of Hurkamp Groceries (located at 103 Broad, although his residence was at 189 Broad). Peters owned the property through at least 1965, although about 1950 the property was no longer was as residential property, but had been rented to Colony Wine and Spirits Company, perhaps marking a notable transition on the block.

99 Broad Street

The early history of this property is the same as 97 Broad and, in fact, ownership parallels that of 97 Broad through Frederick C. Peters. The only significant differences have to do with the residents. Even this, however, was similar with only single families typically renting the building. The only real exception to this was in 1892 when Mrs. Sarah A. Davis operated a boarding house. More often the house was rented to a single family. In 1860 it was home for Thomas Y. Simons, an attorney. In 1901 it was Henry Jackson, who worked as a railroad agent. In 1910 it was Harry H. Karpe, a manager of a local business, and in 1931 it was Julian E. Smith, a son of the Smiths operating the plumbing business at 91 Broad. We have also been able to document that the rear building, in 1882, was rented to three African American males — Edward Mikell, a barber, John Chisolm, who worked at a saloon, and Joseph Gadsden, a butler.

By 1942 the Automatic Grocery at 103 Broad (Hurkamp's old store) had begun to encroach on both 99 and 101 Broad, with a warehouse being built in their rear yards, over the previous kitchens and outbuildings. Within a decade both 99 and 101 Broad would be demolished for the construction of a self-service grocery. Initially this building had raised wood floors, but a rodent problem required that the wood floors be removed and a concrete slab laid down prior to 1955. In 1969 this became the Old Towne Piggly Wiggly store. By 1983 this store was no longer profitable and was closed ("Broad Street Piggly Wiggly Being Closed," Charleston *News and Courier*, August 23, 1983).

101 Broad Street

The ownership and land use history of this lot is identical to that of 99 Broad. Review of city directories even reveals that the house, like those at 97 and 99 Broad, was typically rented to middle class single families during the late postbellum.

The 1831 City Directory reveals that the building probably replaced by Mordecai Cohen at this location was being rented by Gilbert Wall, a free person of color who listed his occupation as that of tailor. This appears to be the only free black living in the project area. By the late 1840s, after Cohen's three identical buildings were complete and being rented, all of the occupants were white and of middling status. In 1869 the house was being rented by Dr. E.H. Kellers for his office and pharmacy which, in 1871, he moved to 95 Broad.

Summary

A few points are worthy of brief summation. These comments are not intended to provide a synopsis of what is itself only a very brief account. Rather, we hope to outline a few of the more significant historical features which we will use as the basis of our historical context in assessing archaeological site significance.

First, the African American presence in the study block is very ephemeral. It is likely that a most of the residences minimally had rear kitchens and servants' quarters where a few African American slaves probably lived and worked. This pattern continued into the postbellum, with African Americans being found renting space in the rear of 87 Broad, 89 Broad, 91 Broad, 93 Broad, and 99 Broad. What this means,

of course, is that rear yard deposits have a strong potential for reflecting African American lifeways. The problem here, as elsewhere in Charleston, will be distinguishing owner or white occupant trash from that generated by slaves or black occupant trash. This has proven difficult, at best, and we do not anticipate that it will be any easier in the study area.

More significantly, this research has revealed that at least one free person of color was living on the block during the antebellum. The 1831 residence of Gilbert Wall at 101 Broad may be of considerable importance, *if ca. 1830 deposits can be isolated in the archaeological record.*

Second, the overwhelming impression created by the historical review is that the property on Broad was primarily considered an investment and was used for rental income. During the antebellum only three properties may be considered to have been primarily owner occupied. These include 85-87 Broad, where from Josiah Smith at the turn of the century to E.A. Smith, the property was in one family; 89 Broad, where the Smyser, Lee, and Lockwood families were the primary occupants from the middle of the eighteenth century through the Civil War; and 95 Broad, where the Wilson family lived from the late 1790s until the early 1860s. To these we might add 93 Broad, at least for the late antebellum and postbellum, when it was in the Simons family. Prior to 1850, however, it was clearly rental property and 1900 it returned to being rental (primarily commercial) property.

Some of the occupations, such as early periods at 97-101 Broad, are not well understood, but appear to have been primarily rental. Certainly after 1835 these three properties were almost exclusively rental.

The differences between these types of property are important to our understanding of, and interpretation of, the archaeological record. Both are important and an effort should be made to obtain samples of each different group.

Third, there appear to be a variety of different social and economic groups attracted to this section of Broad Street, although for the most part most were respectable middling status clerks, students, and accountants during the antebellum. These people were neither at the top, nor the bottom, of Charleston's socio-economic scale and their examination may provide some exciting information concerning the middle class in Charleston.

THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Strategy and Methods

One of the more cogent discussions of archaeological survey techniques on urban sites is provided by Honerkamp and his colleagues from their work at the Telfair Site in Savannah Georgia:

> Adequate archaeological surveys of urban sites require approaches that are considerably different from those applied at shallow, less complex sites. The [backhoe] trenching technique used in the preliminary study was inadequate for doing more than locating brick foundation and generating unprovenienced artifact collections; the integrity of the site's archaeological resources could not be determined at all. Secondary testing, which was not carried out prior to data recovery, would have been useful in determining the site's research potential. In fact, it may be that a restructuring of the traditional CRM survey-testing-data recovery approach is now in order. We recommend that future survey-level projects at urban sites included intensive, systematic documentary research to determine basic site parameters (demography, site function, ethnic affiliations, identification of features for archaeological targeting, etc.) prior to any archaeological fieldwork. Only in rare situations would an urban site be devoid of all documentation, but the absence of such documentation would not, of course, preclude further investigation by archaeologists. Indeed, such as a situation would constitute a strong argument in favor of archaeological testing. In most cases, however, documentary data will be available that can be used to structure archaeological research in an efficient, productive manner (Honerkamp et al. 1983:187).

This is not to say that archaeologists don't use backhoes and other forms of heavy equipment in either testing or data recovery operations at urban sites, primarily as a cost-savings measure allowing greater exposures in less time than conventional hand excavation. Backhoes may be used to remove overburden or may be used to excavate trenches to expose features; alternatively, bulldozers may be used to remove overburden, with graders then used to slowly expose features for excavation (see Cheek et al. 1983; Garrow 1982; Joseph 1993; and Louis Berger & Associates 1985 for examples of these different approaches).

Nor is to say that heavy equipment is never used in surveys. New South Associates recently used a series of 14 trenches to survey the Riverfront Augusta Site (see Joseph 1993:6-10). Some investigators have even suggested that urban surveys can be accomplished with no field investigations (a case in point being the 1978 survey by Cosans and Henry of the Charleston Center project). Grimes and Zierden (1988:53) on the Charleston Visitor's Center site even note that "an archival survey is the most effective means" of conducting a Phase I survey. It wasn't until their Phase II testing project that any excavations were conducted. Then Zierden and her colleagues implemented a combination of three 5-foot test units placed to identify specific features or activity areas in the eastern third of the project area, coupled with an auger survey at 20 foot intervals over the remainder of the open tract (Grimes and Zierden 1988:53-54). The auger data was then used

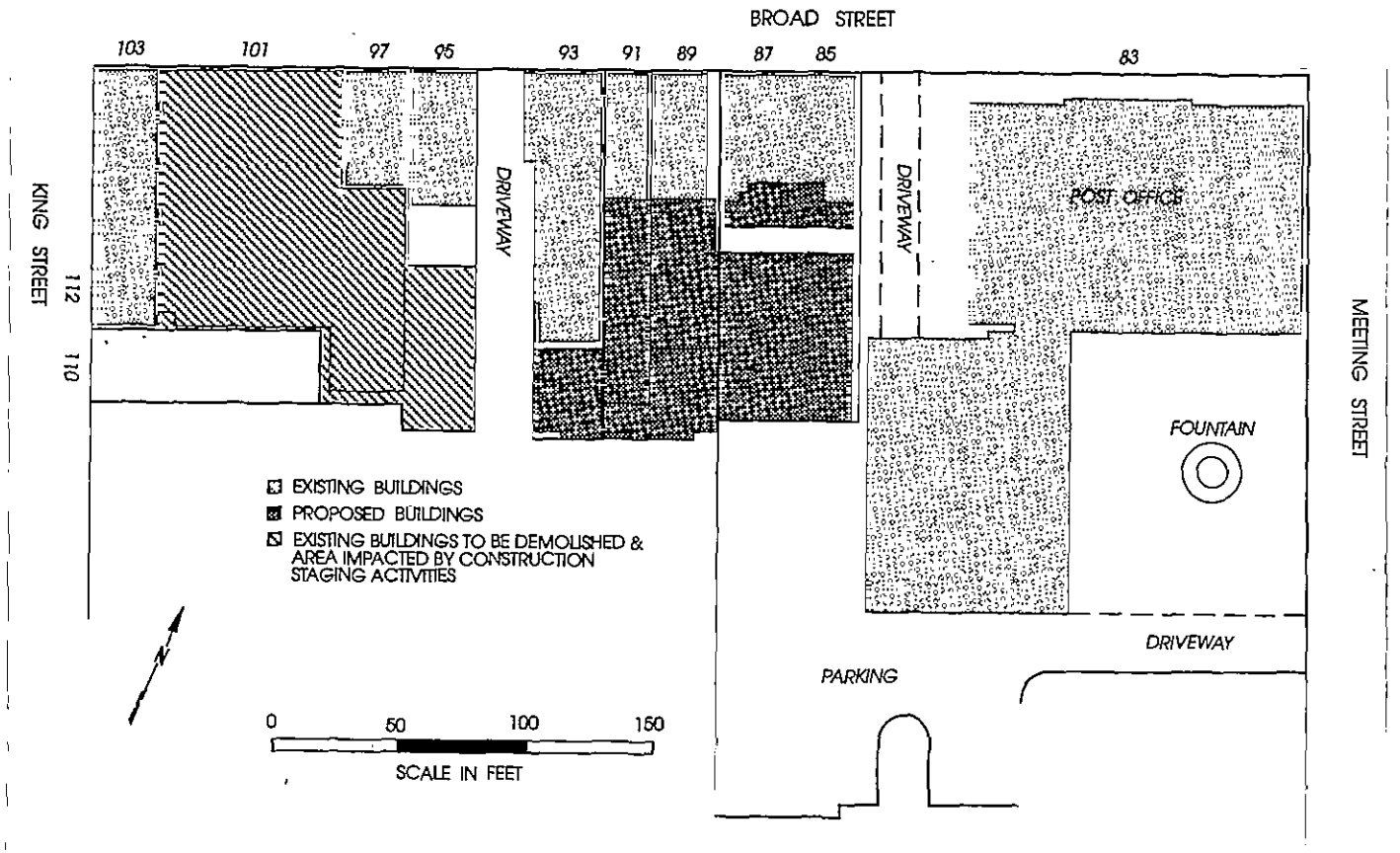

Figure 26. Project block showing extant property lines and buildings with proposed construction and ground disturbing activity as an overlay.

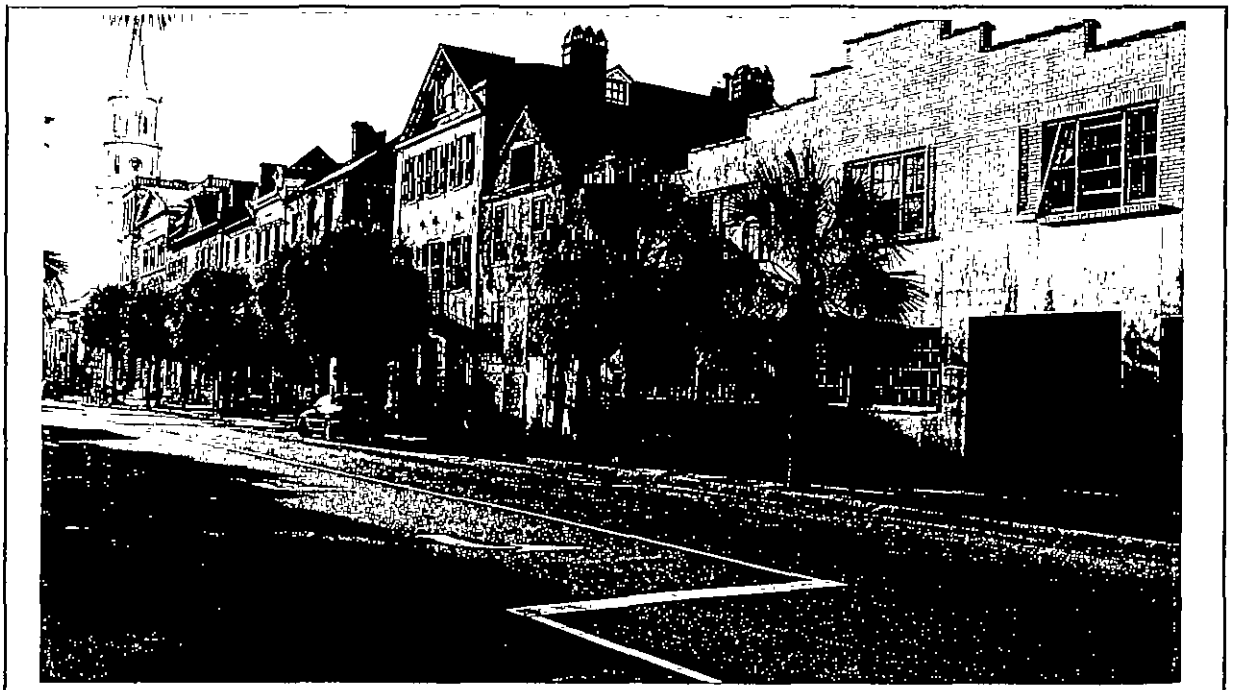

Figure 27. Project area from 101 Broad (Piggly Wiggly building) east, with St. Michael's at far left edge).

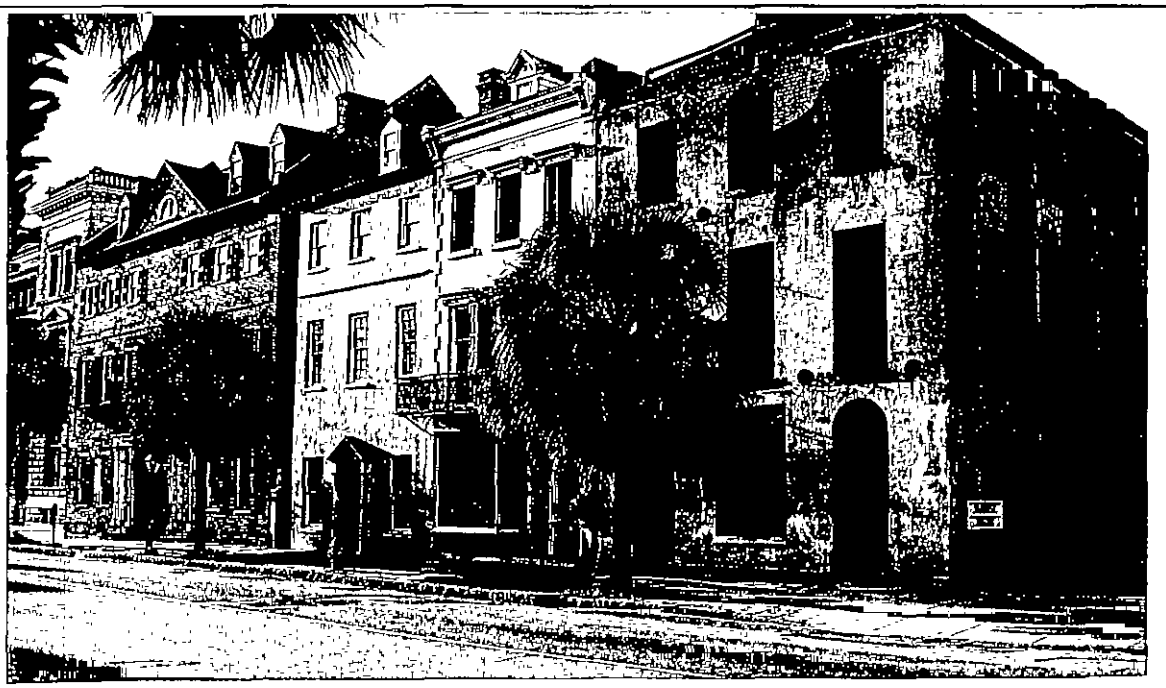

Figure 28. Project area from 93 Broad Street (right side of photograph) east to 85-87 Broad Street.

to generate a series of density maps suitable for identification of areas requiring further research during their Phase 3 program.

The survey methodology employed by Chicora Foundation for the Hollings Judicial Center drew insight from this broad range of previous urban research, especially that of The Charleston Museum's urban archaeology program in downtown Charleston. The importance of detailed historical information concerning those living on the block, and the organization of lots lines and structures, was clear. Consequently, a week of historical investigation was conducted at the Charleston Register of Mesne Conveyances, the South Carolina Historical Society, the Charleston Public Library, the City of Charleston Archives, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, and the South Caroliniana Library. This research concentrated on the retrieval of cartographic and plat sources which would show changes in the block over time, as well as obtaining information on the ethnicity and social status of those living on the block. Only once this was complete were field investigations undertaken.

The field methodology was determined by the conditions present at the site. Virtually the entire area was either under asphalt parking lot or extant buildings. Figure 26 shows the current conditions and structures in the survey area, with the proposed Hollings Judicial Center as an overlay. Figures 27 and 28 show the streetscape along Broad, with a virtually unbroken series of facades. The only "open" ground in the traditional archaeological sense were some side terraces associated with an 80 by 50 foot garden area behind 85-87 Broad Street (Figure 29). Even here the vast majority of the garden was paved, bricked, or under landscape fill. Elsewhere behind the streetscape there was no open ground (Figures 30 and 31). Consequently, there was virtually no area open to either shovel testing or auger testing.

Realizing all of the previously outlined potential shortcomings associated with using backhoe cuts to gather survey information we felt nevertheless that there was no other viable alternative. The use of hand excavated units, while providing greater control and an assemblage capable of providing more information, would also be more costly — in both time and money. We were informed that time was especially short in this project.

In order to minimize the problems associated with backhoe testing several modifications were made in the normal routine. First, and perhaps most importantly, the placement of the backhoe tests were based on the historical research. The cuts were placed to maximize information return on a variety of different lots. Second, the cuts were made relatively small in order to minimize possible damage to features which might be encountered. To also help prevent features from being destroyed in this initial testing phase the excavations were closely monitored and would be terminated should intact architectural feature s be encountered. Third, samples of the fill were waterscreened in order to maximize data return from the cuts (Figure 32). Careful cleaning and plotting of these cuts were also undertaken for the same reason. Finally, the cuts were opened and filled within two days in order to minimize public attention and the associated potential for site looting. The location of these units is shown in Figure 33.

The field investigations included a brief pedestrian survey (approximately 2 person hours) on Monday, June 24, followed by the field investigations on Saturday, July 20 (26 person hours). The reconnaissance was performed to verify the condition of the site and explore options for the site survey. Photographs were taken at the time of the pedestrian survey to document site conditions.

The subsequent field investigations began by marking those areas selected for backhoe cuts. We had initially selected an area well within the garden area behind 85-87 Broad Street, but these plans were modified when we discovered that the utility marking had not included this area. In addition, we opted to minimize the amount of garden wall needed to be removed. This not only allowed the work to progress more quickly, but it also helped to minimize public attention. Consequently, the unit was eventually placed near the southwest corner of this lot, in an area which

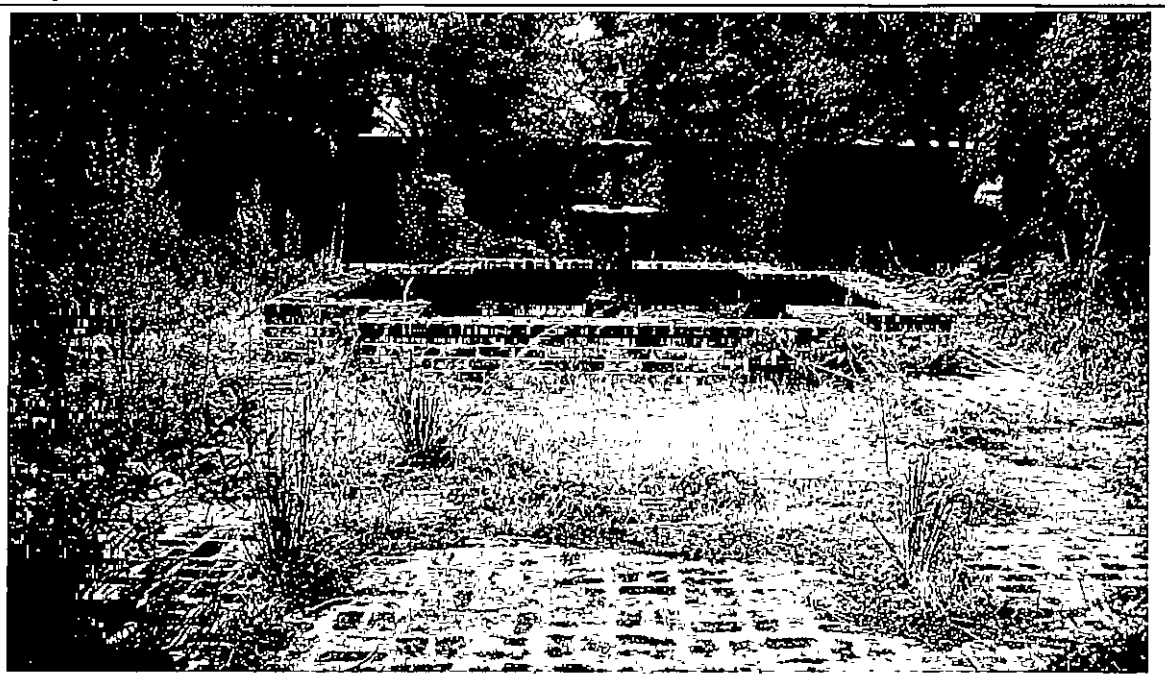

Figure 29. Interior courtyard associated with 85-87 Broad Street, looking south to GSA parking lot.

Figure 30. GSA parking area looking north to the rear of 95 Broad. Piggly Wiggly store buildings are to the right side of the photograph and 93 Broad is to the right.

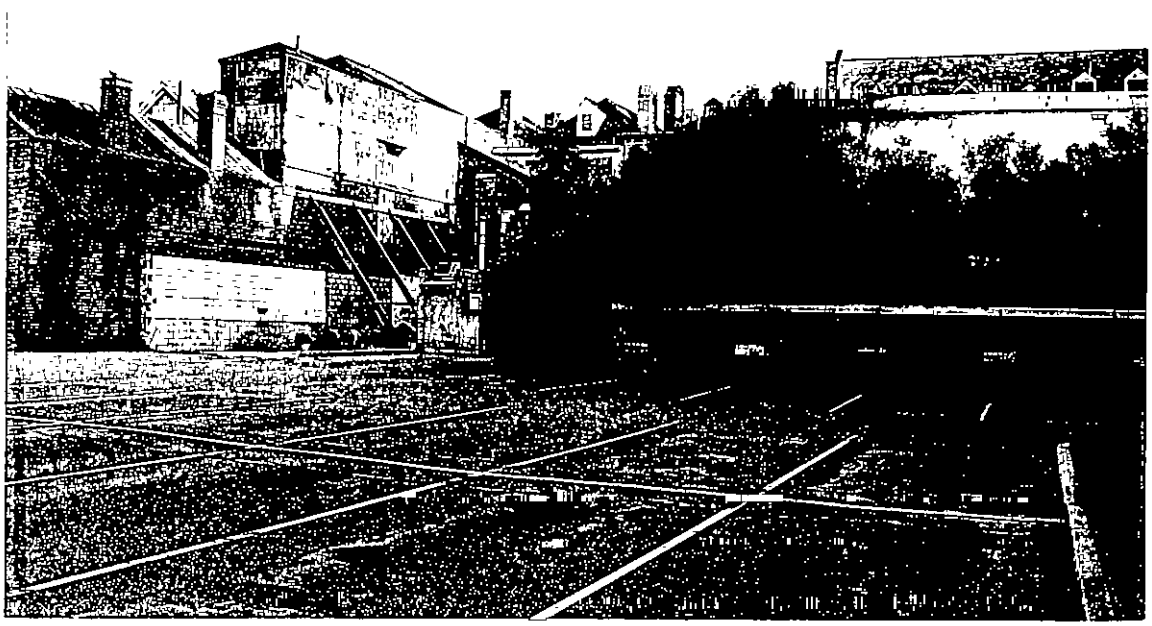

Figure 31. GSA parking area looking north to the failed side wall of 93 Broad (supported by timbers). To the right is the rear yard of 85-87 Broad behind the brick wall.

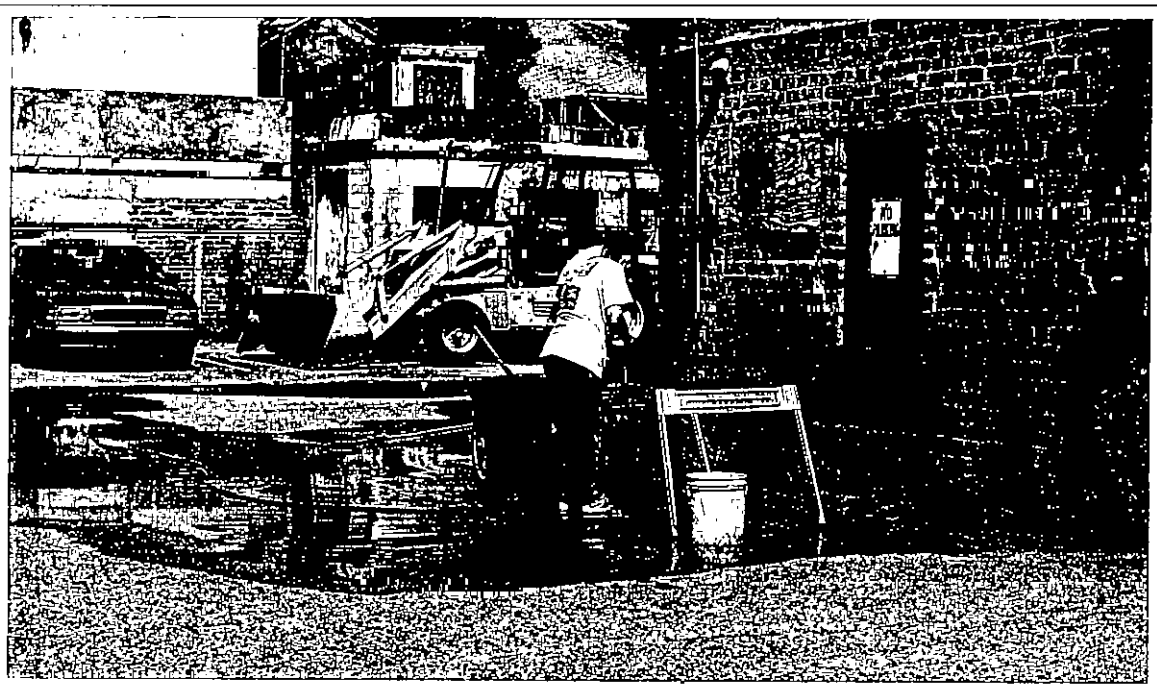

Figure 32. Waterscreening at the rear of 93 Broad Street.

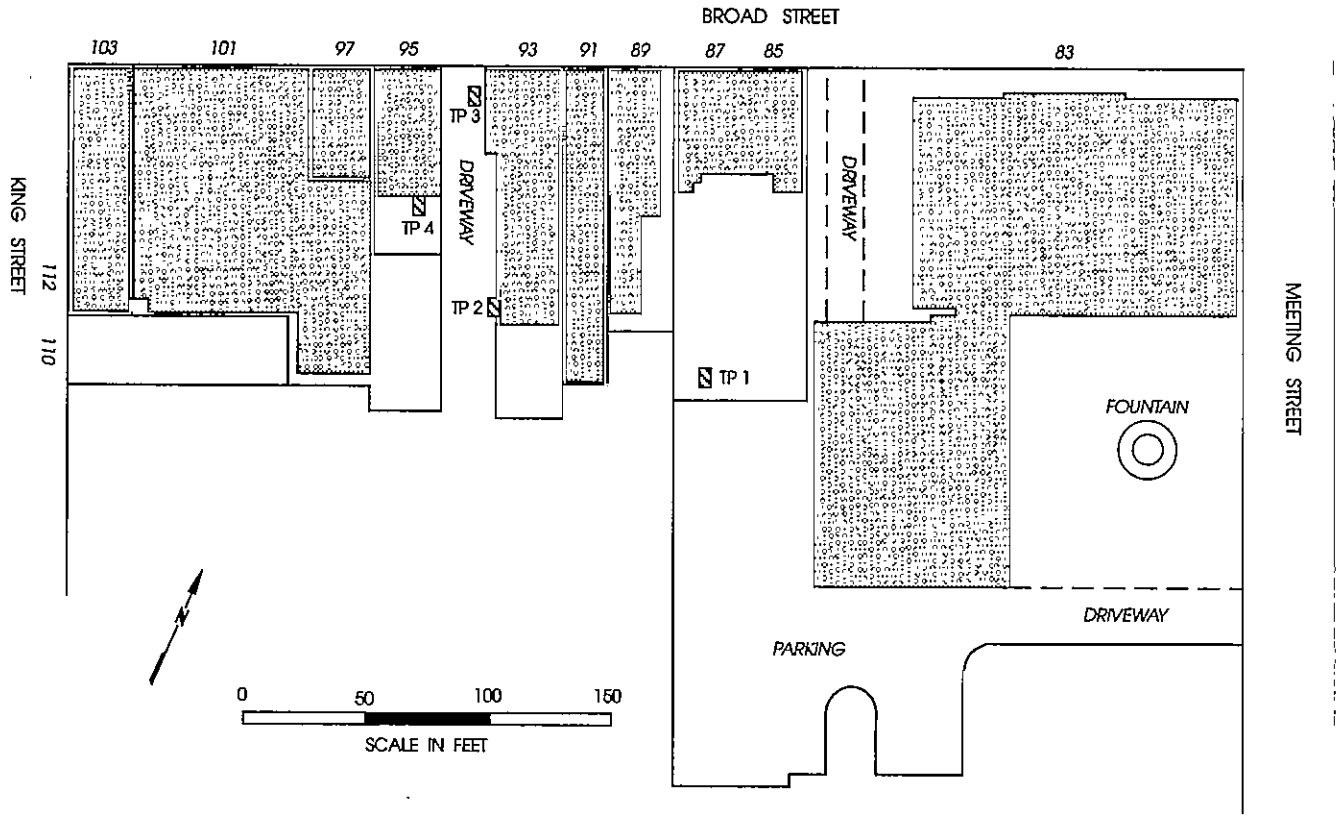

Figure 33. Location of backhoe cuts (Units 1 through 4) in the project area.

we anticipated might reveal rear lot sheet midden. The unit measured 7.0 feet north-south by 4.5 feeteast-west, and the southwestern corner was placed 1.1 feet east of the brick walkway and 4.1 feet north of the garden wall.

A second unit was placed on the west side of the rear building at 93 Broad slated for demolition. This unit was anticipated to help define the amount of deposition in a near yard context associated with outbuildings. This unit was 7.4 feet north-south and 4.9 feet east-west. The northwestern corner is 6.5 feet south of the brick kitchen at 93 Broad and 7.0 feet west of the adjacent brick building.

A third unit was marked off in the alley way between 93 and 95 Broad. Our interest here was to explore the deposition which might have developed in an open area between two buildings close to the street. This unit measured 6.4 feet north-south by 4.8 feet east-west, and was situated 13.5 feet south of the northern face of 93 Broad Street and 2 feet west.

A fourth unit was marked off adjacent to the modern buildings associated with the Piggly Wiggly store at 101 Broad, situated at the rear of 95 Broad. This is an area which will be impacted by construction staging and building activity. It was thought to be associated with the original rear lot area of 95 Broad Street. This unit measured 6.4 feet north-south by 3.2 feet east-west. It was placed 24.3 feet south of 95 Broad and 2 feet east of the concrete block building on the Piggly Wiggly site.

A fifth unit was initially proposed behind either 89 or 91 Broad Street in order to complete our coverage of the project area. We discovered, however, that excavations behind 89 Broad Street might result in legal complications since the owners of that property are protesting the planned undertaking. In exploring our options behind 91 Broad, we discovered that a portion of the rear structure had previously failed during a windstorm and walls were being braced (see Figure 31). We were concerned that without structural evaluation severe damage was possible to the remaining structure. Consequently, no additional test units were laid out for study.

Where necessary the asphalt was first cut and then the backhoe began excavation of the units. Soil was removed in something that approached 0.5 foot cuts, allowing for inspection of the unit and its profiles as the work progressed. An effort was made to pile the spoil in order of its removal. As the units were being excavated, fill was being collected for waterscreening through ¼-inch mesh (see Figure 32). Although it was not possible to maintain exact control of the fill, in several of the units it was possible to distinguish between upper and lower zones. In each case we screened between 3 and 4 cubic feet of the fill from each zone (see Table 5), typically amounting to about 3 or 4% of the zone. Our goal was to process sufficient material to allow some evaluation of the fill's date and to provide some indication of the types, and quantity, of artifacts present.

Table 5.
Sampling of Excavated Units

Unit	ft^3	ft^3 screened	%
TP 1	63.0	3	4.8
TP 2, Z 1	83.5	3	3.6
TP 2, Z 2	83.5	4	4.8
TP 3	135.0	4	3.0
TP 4, Z 1	48.2	4	8.3
TP 4, Z 2	48.2	3	8.3

At the conclusion of the backhoe excavations the units were flat shoveled and the profiles were troweled, photographed, and drawn. Elevations were taken of these units using an assumed elevation (AE) point of 10.00 feet, established at the southeast corner of 93 Broad Street. This location is outside the construction zone and will eventually allow a mean sea level elevation to be determined for the reference point.

Units were subsequently backfilled and those in paved areas (which includes all except TP 1, situated in the garden area at 85-87 Broad) had about 2.0 feet of crush-run placed on top. This not only provides a firm base for continued parking, but will clearly indicate the excavation area during subsequent excavations.

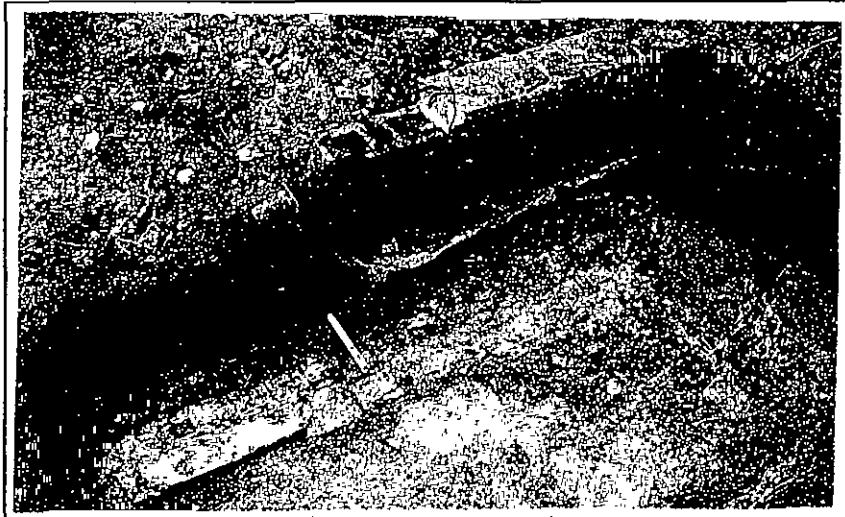
Figure 34. West profile and base of Unit 1 behind 87 Broad Street.

Archaeological Units

Test Unit 1, situated in the southwestern edge of the garden behind 85-87 Broad Street (Figure 33), was excavated to a depth of only about 2.0 feet before architectural features were encountered and the excavations were terminated.

The upper 1.0 to 1.4 foot of the unit consisted on a black loam representing landscape fill brought in for the garden. At the base of this fill a small trench had been excavated east-west across the unit to allow the placement of a PVC water pipe. Below the landscaping fill was a tan sand with moderate brick rubble which overlay a brick wall running north-south along the western edge of the unit. This wall was a brick and a half in width and extended the entire length of the unit, although the northern third had been robbed out, leaving a mass of mortar rubble and an adjacent robber's hole. Along the eastern side of the feature southward from this robbed section the builder's trench was still intact. Below the tan sand and rubble elsewhere in the unit was a mottled yellow fill (Figures 34 and 35).

The excavation did not go deeper in this unit since it was not possible to safely maneuver the backhoe bucket between the intact wall and a gray electrical conduit discovered running north-south along the eastern wall of the unit (again in the upper landscape fill).

This unit was taken out and screened as one zone, after the landscaping fill was discarded. Although this unit did not penetrate what we expect are the deep deposits in this area, it did reveal that the garden terraces behind 85-87 Broad Street represent added fill and that the central courtyard is at the normal level anticipated for this portion of the site.

Test Unit 2, situated on the west side of the buildings to be demolished at 93 Broad (Figure 33), was excavated to sterile subsoil, approximately 4.0 feet below the current asphalt surface. Subsoil was found to be a light tan sand grading into a yellow sandy clay.

The unit profile reveals 0.4 foot of asphalt overlying 0.3 foot of lensed yellow sand, representing a fill deposit to provide a leveling base for the parking lot. Below this was about 0.6 to 1.4 foot of dark brown sand and brick rubble, likely representing some demolition activity on the site. Below this a tan sand, likely representing sheet midden built up adjacent to the buildings in this area of the yard. The tan sand rests on lensed rubble in the northern half of the unit and on a dark brown sand in the southern half. This latter deposit represents the original humic or A horizon soils of the block and are consistent with those found to the east in the post office excavations (Figures 36 and 37).

Unit 2 was taken out and screened as two zones. The upper material, called Zone 1, included about 2.0 feet of fill below the modern asphalt and leveling base. The lower level, Zone 2, consists of the dark brown sand thought to represent the original humic soils at the site.

Test Unit 3, placed at the north end of the alley way exiting onto Broad Street (Figure 33), consisted of about 4.5 feet of fill. The upper 1.5

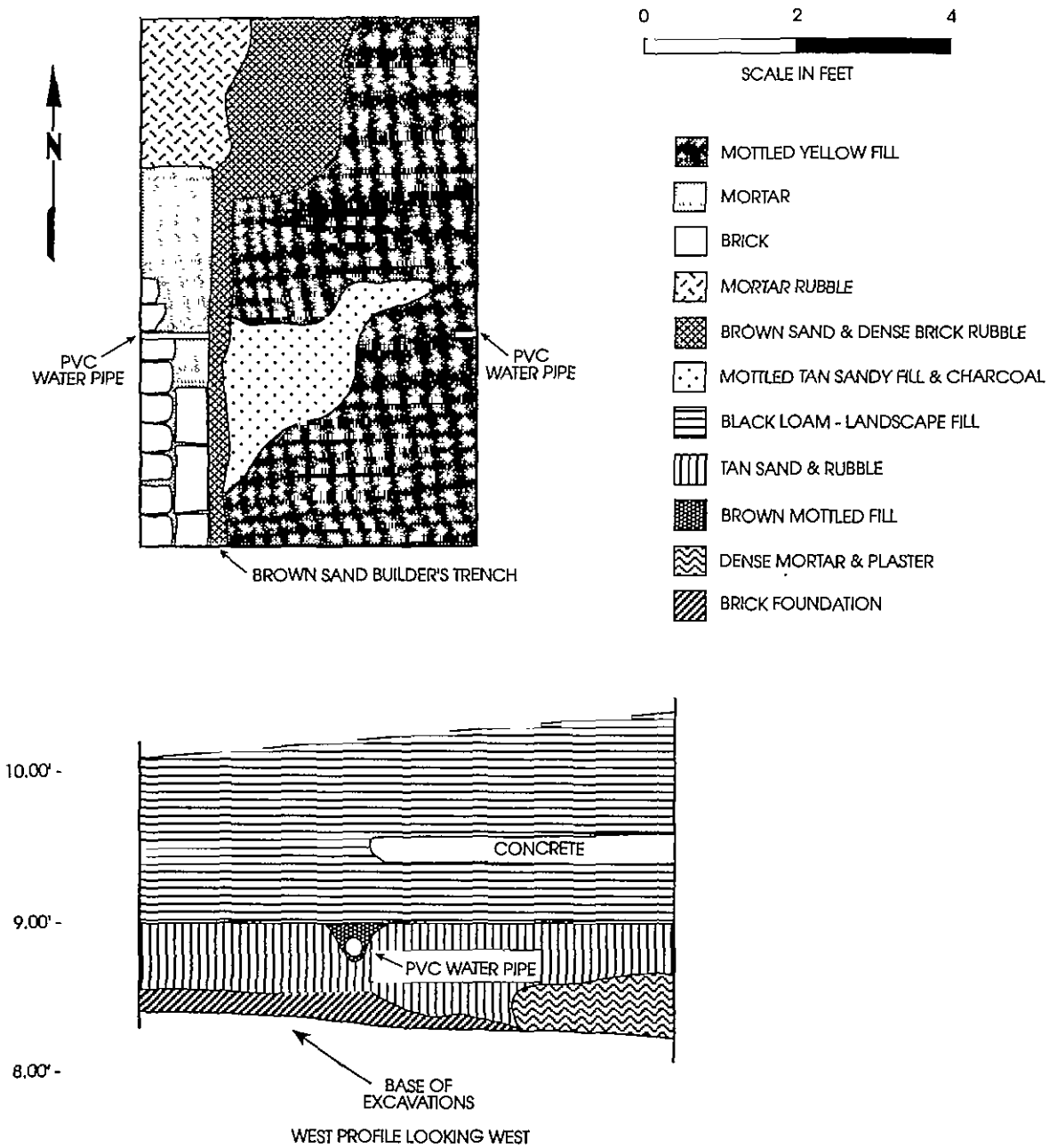

Figure 35. Unit 1 plan and profile.

Figure 36. West profile of Unit 2, looking west.

feet consisted on asphalt paving and the lensed yellow sand fill below it. The remaining 3 feet consisted of either a mottled brown sand or a brown sand with dense mortar. Unfortunately both of these strata represent mixed fill from utility trenches (Figures 38 and 39).

The excavations were terminated when a narrow ribbon of light tan subsoil was encountered between the two trenches (both of which penetrate the subsoil to an unknown depth). Because the stratigraphy in this unit was so homogenized by the trench excavations, all of the fill was taken out and screened as one zone.

The final excavation, **Test Unit 4**, was situated in the rear of 95 Broad (Figure 33) and was excavated to yellow subsoil. A brick wall, at least 18 inches in width, was encountered in the north profile of the unit. Although the wall sustained some damage to the upper courses, the backhoe was adjusted to prevent its being removed. This wall was laid up in common or English bond [1] using a shell lime mortar. The base of the wall was not encountered in these excavations and no builder's trench was encountered in the unit. This wall likely represents the kitchen for 93 Broad.

The profile for this unit reveals approximately 0.3 foot of asphalt overlying 1.3 feet of mottled yellow and tan sand with dense brick rubble. Although it is difficult to be certain, we believe that this rubble represents the demolition of the kitchen. It was apparently compacted and used in lieu of a leveling base.

Below the rubble are two deposits, both about 0.9 foot in depth. Adjacent to the wall is a mixture of yellow sand and dense coal slag. At the opposite end of the unit is a brown sand with light rubble, perhaps representing trash accumulating under the kitchen (Figures 40 and 41).

These deposits, likely associated with the use of the kitchen building, rest on top of a black sandy loam, representing the A horizon soils characteristic of the project area.

Excavations in Unit 4 were taken out in two zones or levels. The upper level represented the brick rubble, the lower level represented the A horizon soils. Unfortunately, we believe that the intervening deposits of coal slag and brown sand were mixed between the upper and lower deposits, reducing the temporal significance of the two zones.

Artifacts

The cleaning of the artifacts was conducted at Chicora's Columbia laboratories immediately after the conclusion of the field work

[1] This is a traditional bond which has been widely used through time, becoming known as English bond only with the introduction of Flemish bond. It consists of alternating courses of stretchers (long faces) and headers (ends). It is typically seen in walls where high strength is critical, since it possesses no internal straight joints. While strong, it has the disadvantage of being monotonous and somewhat unattractive.

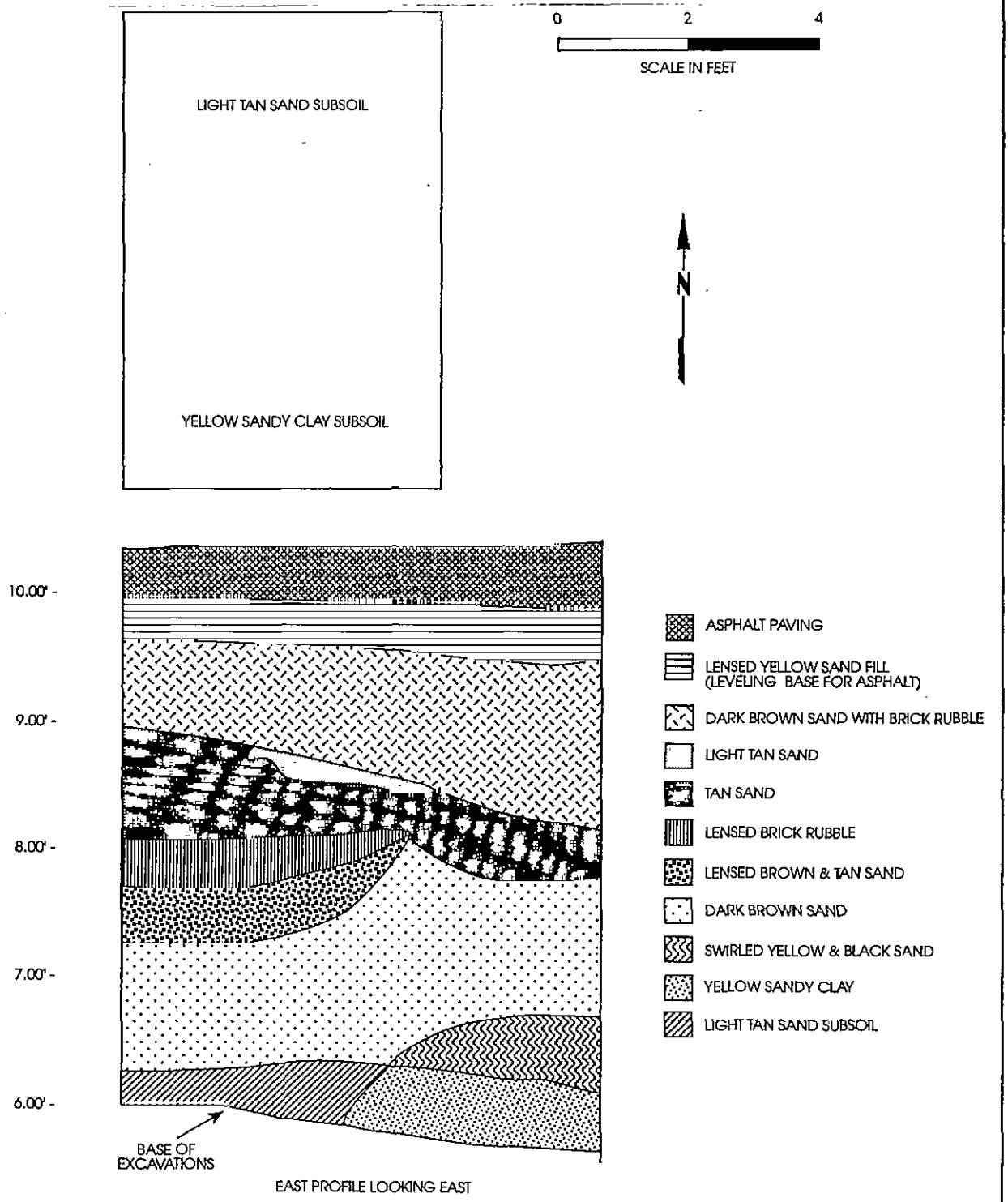

Figure 37. Unit 2 plan and profile.

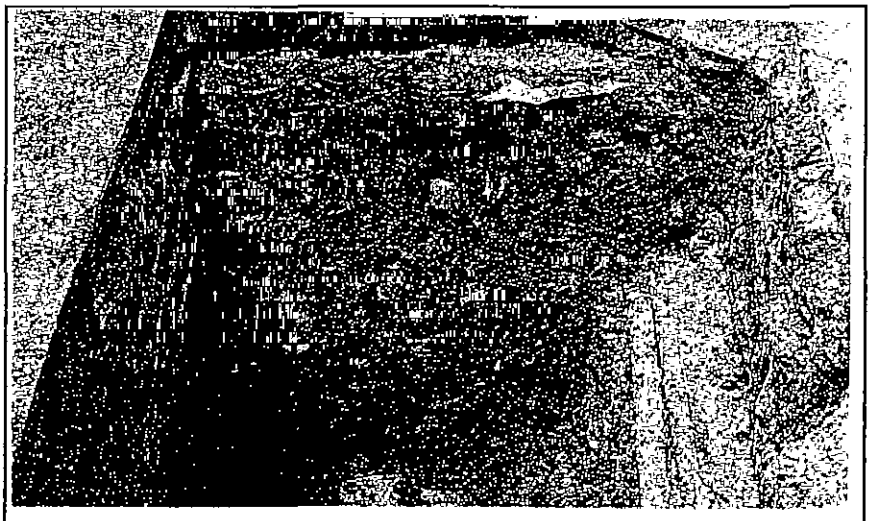

Figure 38. North profile of Unit 3 looking north.

(of course, since the materials were collected from waterscreening, relatively little additional cleaning was necessary). All of the artifacts were evaluated for their conservation needs and all were determined to be stable. A large number of the ferrous objects, such as nails, were heavily corroded and were identified, measured, and discarded. No conservation has been undertaken on any of the recovered materials.

As previously discussed, the materials have been accepted for curation by The Charleston Museum. The materials have been catalogued using this institution's accessioning practices. Specimens were packed in plastic bags and boxed. Field notes were prepared on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper. Black and white negatives were processed to archival standards. Color prints were taken rather than color slides and since these are not considered archival, they are being retained by Chicora Foundation. Representative photographs of the project area are reproduced in this report. All original field notes and archival copies are curated at The Charleston Museum.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. The temporal, cultural, and typological classification of the historic remains follow Nöel Hume (1970), Price (1979), and South (1977). Examples of the artifacts are provided as Figures 42 through 44.

Artifact Density

A total of 701 artifacts were recovered from the four units, with TP 1 (the shallowest excavation) yielding 56 specimens or 19/ft^3, TP 2 producing 381 or 54/ft^3, TP 3 producing 186 artifacts or 47/ft^3, and TP 4 contributing 78 specimens or 10/ft^3.

Zierden has previously suggested that artifact densities are lightest at areas where trash could be dumped in marsh or water settings (ranging from about 11 to 13/ft^3), greater at sites further removed from water settings (with densities ranging from 15 to 25/ft^3), and heaviest in public areas (with densities ranging from 45-55/ft^3) (Zierden and Grimes 1989:85-86). A somewhat similar point was made by Joseph and Elliott (1994:89-94), who suggest that the high artifact density found in the Courthouse Square may represent disposal of trash on public property. In contrast to these scenarios, the work at Majestic Square found artifact densities ranging from a low of 34 specimens per cubic foot to a high of over 108 artifacts per cubic foot — all at private domestic sites some distance from water sources (Trinkley and Hacker 1996:113, 118, 126, 128, 133).

The artifact density at the Hollings Judicial Center appears, based on this survey, to be more similar to the results initially projected by Zierden. The observed density in this survey reflects domestic discard at essentially private site some distance from water or other convenient disposal areas.

Not included in these totals are the animal bone collections from the various units. Our initial observations suggest that bone density is rather high. Although the faunal remains recovered from the study site have not been subjected to analysis,

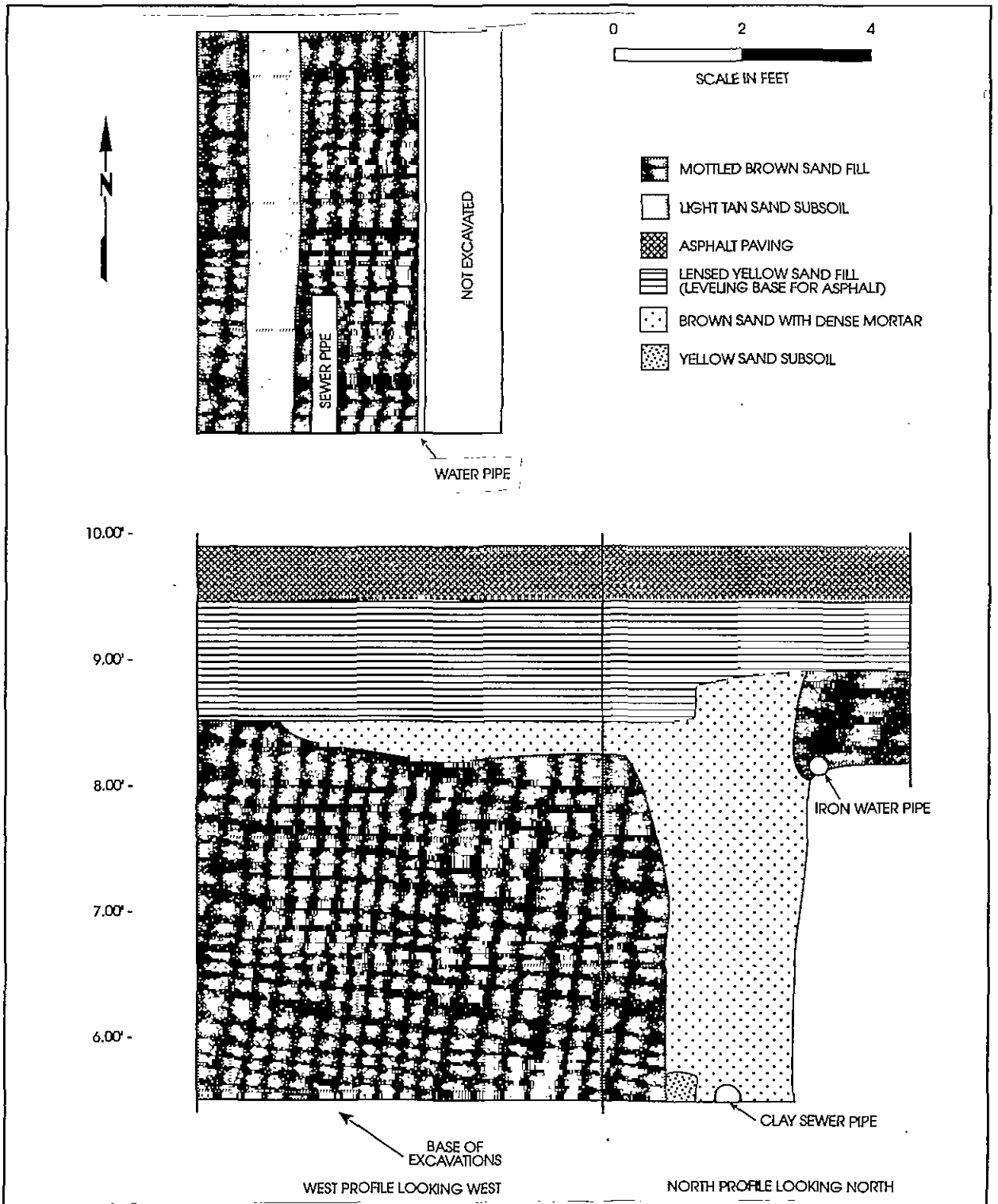

Figure 39. Unit 3 plan and profile.

Figure 40. West profile of Unit 4 looking west.

they have been weighed. Test Unit 1 yielded 174 g, Unit 2 382 g, Unit 3 171 g, and Unit 4 397 g of bone. All four units suggest that faunal recovery at the Hollings Judicial Center will be heavy and the bone will be well preserved.

Test Unit 1

Although the collection from this unit was small, it is dominated by kitchen group artifacts (38 or 67.9%). Of these 19 are ceramics, with most (14 or 73.7%) representing earthenwares. The most common earthenware present in the collection is pearlware, accounting for seven specimens (five transfer print, and two edged wares). The second most common ceramic is porcelain, accounting for 26.3% of the collection.

A single tableware item was recovered from these excavations — a fragment of a clear glass goblet base.

At the most general level this collection appears relatively high status, with porcelains common in the assemblage, the earthenwares dominated by transfer printed wares, and the recovery of the one tableware item. This is consistent with what has been identified for 85-87 Broad Street.

Test Unit 2

The most common artifact category from this unit is the kitchen group, which contributes 193 specimens and accounts for 50.6% of the assemblage. Ceramics are the most common artifact in the kitchen group (114 specimens) and most are earthenwares (79 or 69.3%). Stonewares account for 21 specimens or 18.4% of the ceramics, followed by porcelains (14, 12.3%). The most common earthenwares are delft (22 specimens), followed by slipware (17 specimens) and pearlware (11 specimens).

This unit, however, was excavated into two distinct zones and the ceramics recovered reflect this. The upper zone was dominated by whiteware and pearlware, while the lower zone was dominated by porcelain, slipware, white salt glazed stoneware, and creamware.

From the lower zone came an iron table knife blade as well as several small Colono ware sherds. Also present was a broken delft tile and a fragment of a brass straight pin. The upper level, in contrast, produced a fragment of manganese glass (most common from the last quarter of the nineteenth century through World War I) and an aqua bottle with "DR BAILEY / PERFUMER / NEW YORK" molded into the side. Bailey was present in New York during the last decade of the nineteenth century and first two decades of the twentieth century (Fike 1987:238). This upper level also yielded a clear glass tube which was part of an early twentieth century incandescent lamp. Two of the three buttons recovered from this unit came from these later deposits, as did an unusual flatten oval glass bead. This specimen measures 10.3 mm in length, 7.4 mm in width, and 4.6 mm in height. It is made of opaque red glass and has a single hole through the long dimension.

The assemblage from this unit is

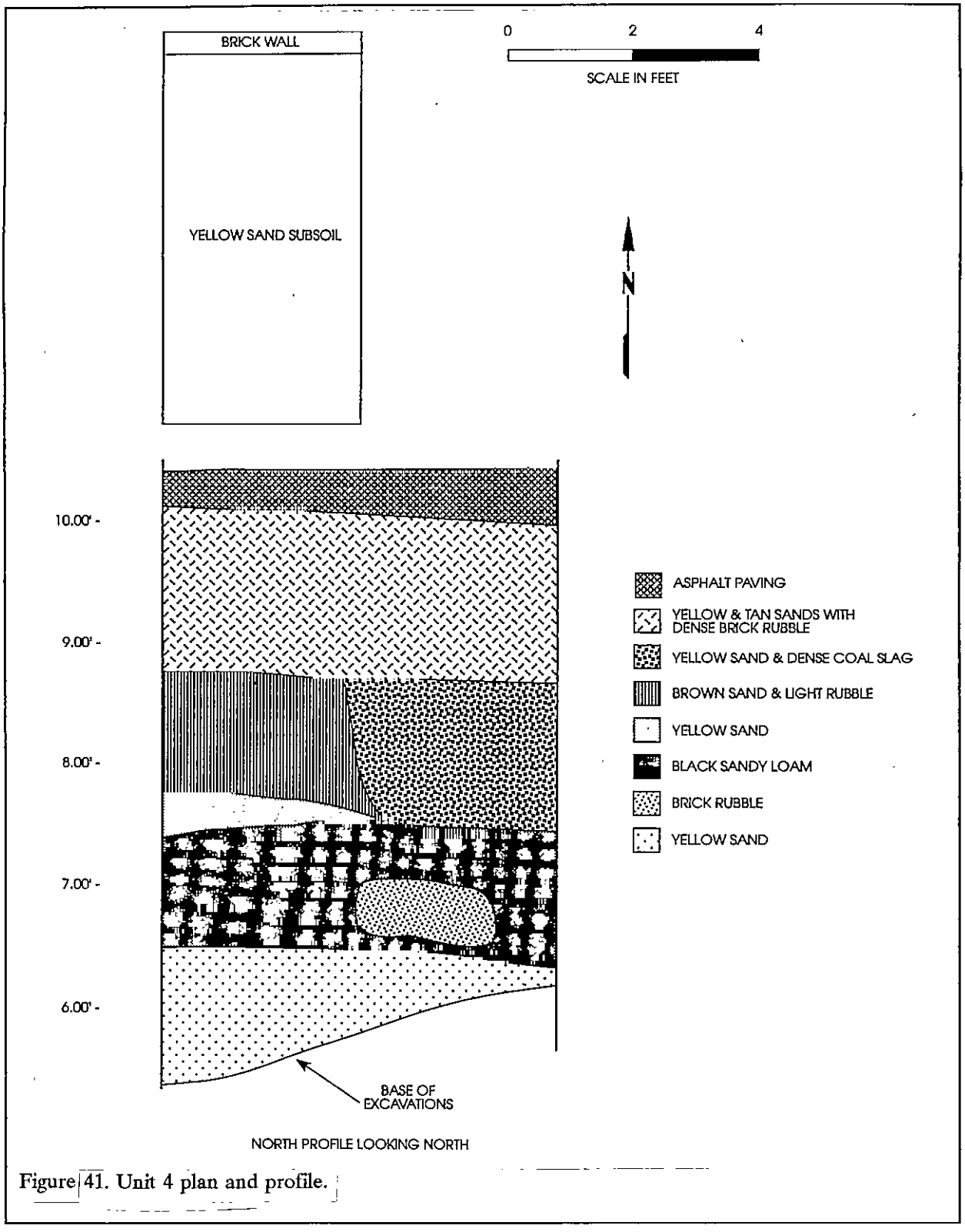

Figure 41. Unit 4 plan and profile.

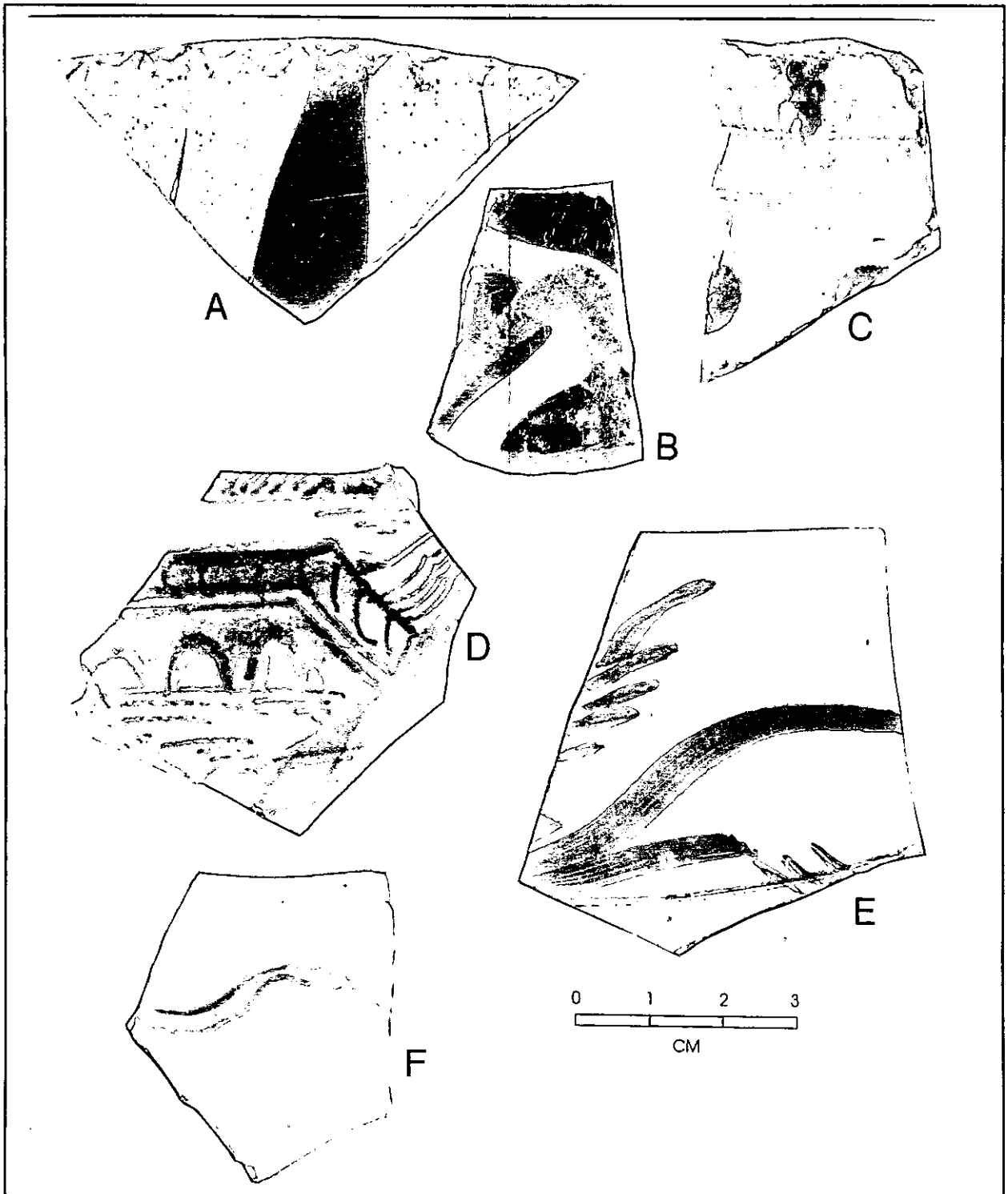

Figure 42. Kitchen Group Artifacts from the Broad Street survey. A-C, lead glazed slipware (A and B are trailed examples, C, is dotted); D, blue underglazed Chinese porcelain; E-F, polychrome delft.

particularly revealing since it documents that the stratigraphy observed at the site is intact and well preserved. It also reveals an exceptional range of materials, with tobacco, clothing, personal, and activity group artifacts being present. The earlier assemblage, with its porcelains, white salt glazed stoneware, and decorated delft specimens, appears to be relatively high status. The later assemblage seems more mixed, although this may be distorted by the relatively small collection.

Associated with 93 Broad, this collection suggests that intact site areas are present and that a range of materials are likely present from the earliest occupation of the lot, perhaps by Bocquet. The late antebellum and early postbellum occupation by Simons is perhaps more difficult to distinguish in this collection, although certainly the small collection of whiteware is consistent with this time period.

Test Unit 3

As with Unit 2, the most common artifact category in this collection is the kitchen group, although again it represents only 56.5% of the total collection (105 specimens). Ceramics are the most common artifact in the kitchen group (62 specimens) and most (43 or 69.3%) are earthenwares. Porcelains account for 8.1% (five specimens) and stonewares account for 22.6% (14 examples). Slipware and delft are the most common earthenwares (accounting for 13 and 12 examples respectively), followed by creamware with seven fragments.

Examination of the collection revealed that the ceramics included primarily higher status wares — including the porcelains, a fragment of a clouded ware teapot lid, decorated delft, hand painted pearlware, and transfer printed whiteware. The glass collection also produced a bottle fragment exhibiting what was likely a medicine bottle lip.

In general this collection suggests a relatively high status occupation, although again the assemblage is both small and mixed. Like the other units, there is relatively little indication of nineteenth century refuse, at least in the materials collected.

Test Unit 4

The most common artifact category in this collection is the kitchen group, accounting for 47 specimens or 60.3% of the total assemblage. This is the second highest proportion, next to Unit 1. In this collection glass and ceramics occur in nearly equal proportions — glass accounts for 25 specimens and ceramics for 21. Most of the glass (17 specimens) is "black," representing ale or wine bottle fragments, while the remainder is aqua. Porcelains and stonewares each account for 14.3% of the ceramic collection. Earthenwares, which account for the bulk of the ceramics (15 items or 71.4%), include primarily slipware (seven specimens) or delft (six specimens).

Although this unit was collected in two zones, the upper level contained almost no material. The single ceramic was a blue hand painted Chinese specimen. This may be the result of the upper zone incorporating extensive demolition debris.

The lower level appears to be dominated by primarily utilitarian wares such as the slipware and delft, and relatively small quantities of tablewares such as creamware, porcelain, and white salt glazed stoneware are present. This is likely a result of the excavation being placed within the kitchen area behind 95 Broad.

Mean Ceramic Dating

Table 6 illustrates the mean ceramic date for the four different units. All of the units have mean ceramic dates from the eighteenth century, although one zone from one unit did produce a mean date from the early nineteenth century. Three of the units produced particularly early dates, from the first half of the eighteenth century.

Clearly these results are very exciting, since they suggest that data sets from the early development of Broad Street are likely present in the study area. For example, Unit 2's early date of 1746 suggests data sets from, or perhaps predating,

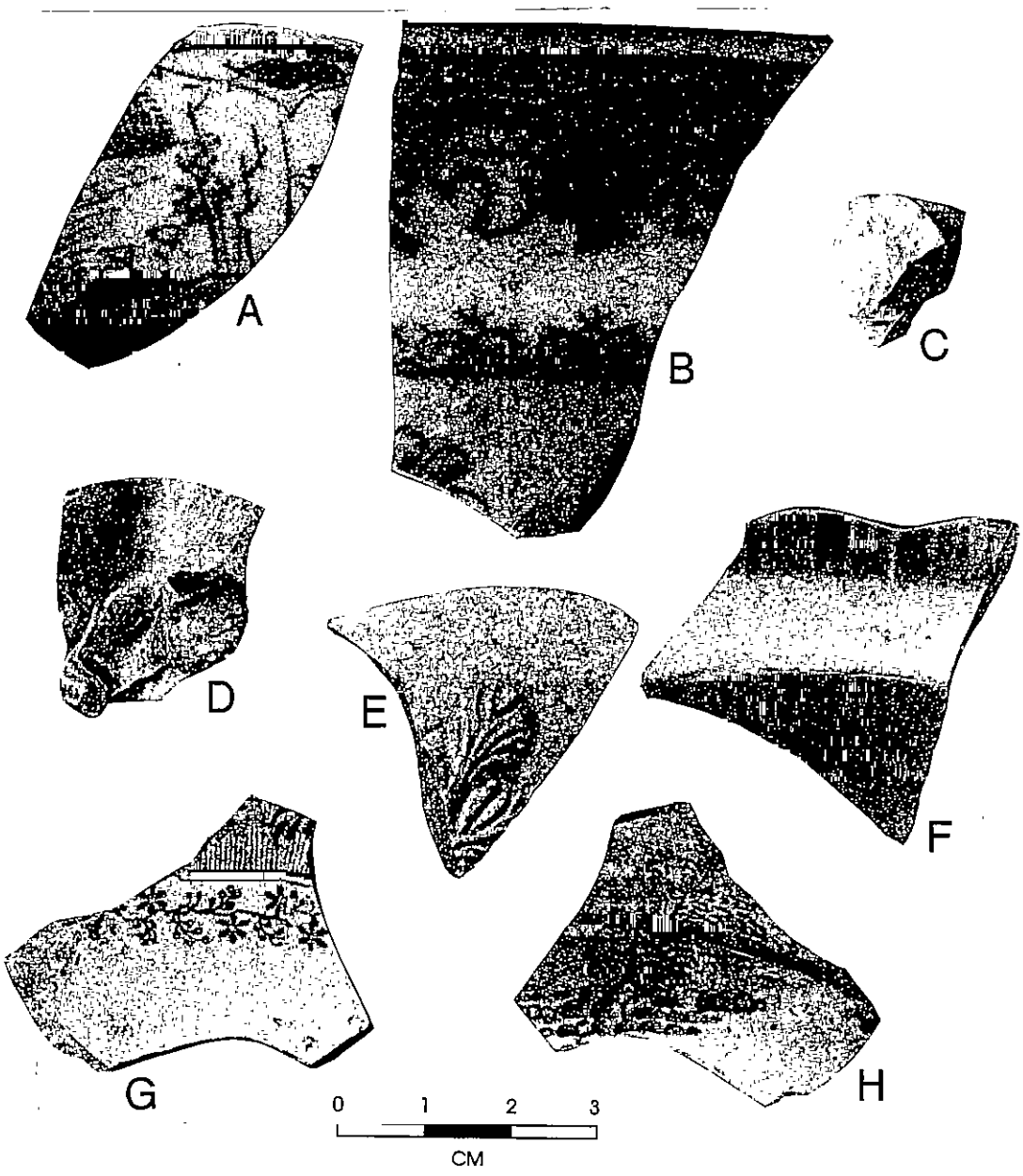

Figure 43. Kitchen Group artifacts. A-B, underglazed blue Chinese porcelain; C-D, Clouded wares; E, molded creamware; F, edged pearlware; G-H, interior and exterior of blue transfer printed pearlware.

Table 6.
Mean Ceramic Dates for the Broad Street Units

	Date Range	Mean Date (xi)	Unit 1 (fi)	Unit 1 (xi)	Unit 2, Z. 1 (fi)	Unit 2, Z. 1 (xi)	Unit 2, Z. 2 (fi)	Unit 2, Z. 2 (xi)	Unit 3 (fi)	Unit 3 (xi)	Unit 4 (fi)	Unit 4 (xi)
Overglaze Enam Ch Porc	1660-1800	1730				4	6920			2	3460	
Underglaze blue Ch Porc	1660-1800	1730	4	6920		5	8650	4	6920	1	1730	
Nottingham Stoneware	1700-1810	1755				5	8775	1	1755	2	3510	
Westerwald	1700-1775	1738				2	3476					
White SG SW	1740-1775	1758		2	3516	8	14064	6	10548	1	1758	
White SG SW, Scratch Blue	1744-1775	1760				1	1760					
Lead Glazed Slipware	1670-1795	1744		4	6976	12	20928	13	22529	7	12131	
Decorated Delft	1600-1802	1750		2	3500	11	19250	9	15750	4	7000	
Plain Delft	1640-1800	1720	1	1720	1720	8	13760	3	5160	2	3440	
Creanware, undecorated	1762-1820	1791	1	1791	2	3582	4	7164	7	12537	2	3582
Pearlware, poly hand paint	1795-1815	1805						1	1805			
blue trans print	1795-1840	1818	5	9090	6	10908						
edged	1780-1830	1805	2	3610	2	3610						
undecorated	1780-1830	1805			2	3610	1	1805	2	3610		
Whiteware, blue edged	1826-1880	1853			1	1853						
annular	1831-1900	1866						1	1866			
non-blue trans	1826-1875	1848						1	1851			
undecorated	1813-1900	1853	2	3720	8	14824	1	1853				
			15	26851	31	55964	62	108280	50	87841	21	36611
			1790.1		1805.3		1746.5		1756.8		1743.3	

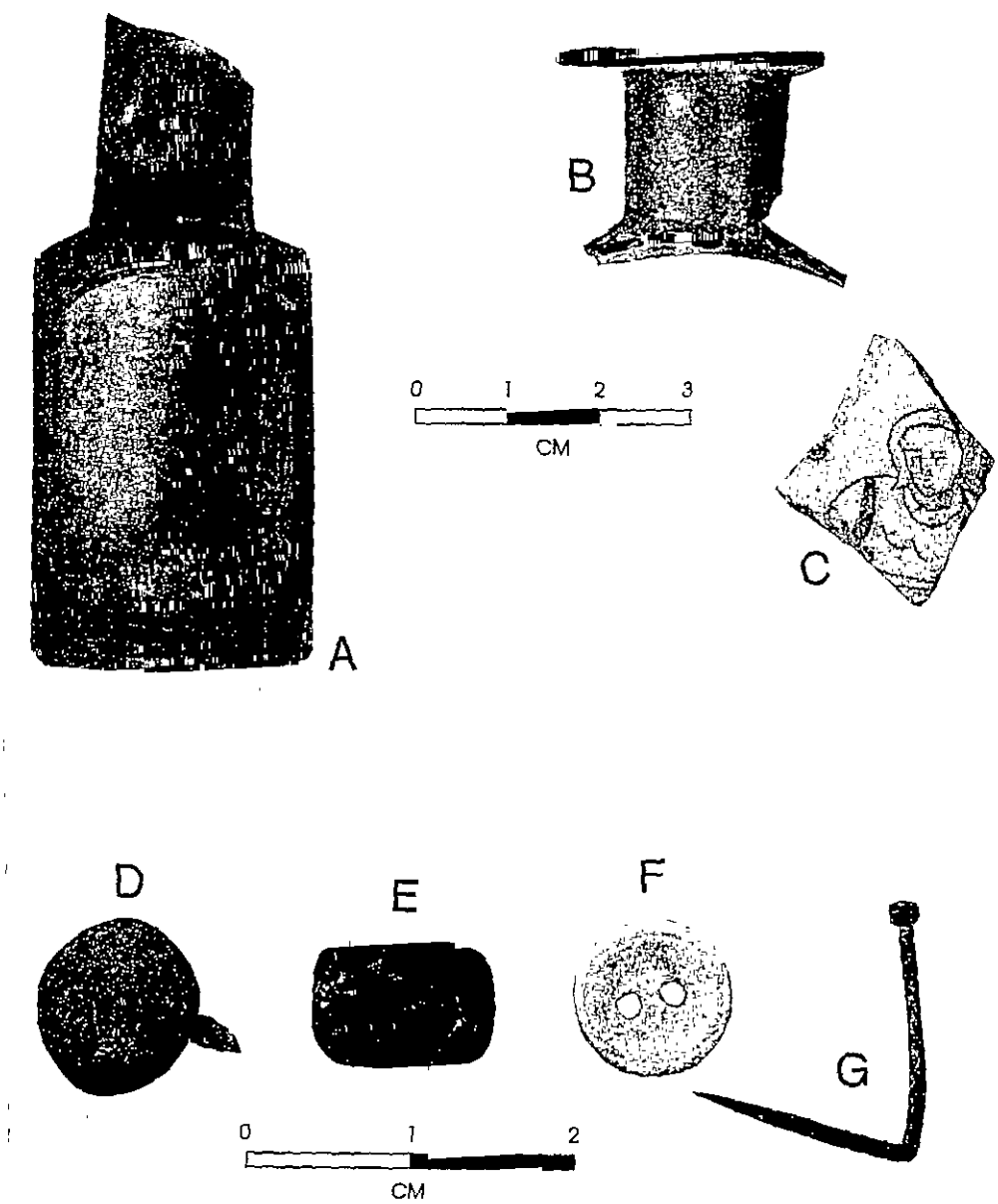

Figure 44. Kitchen and other artifact groups. A, Dr. Bailey's perfume bottle; B, medicine lip from blown bottle; C, delft tile; D, brass furniture tack; E, glass bead; F, shell 2-hole button; G, brass pin.

the ownership of the lot (93 Broad) by Peter Bocquet. Likewise, the 1743 date from Unit 4 reveals the likelihood of equally early data sets for Bocquet from an adjacent lot. Even the late eighteenth century date from Unit 1, at 87 Broad, provides data from the Josiah Smith occupation.

Also very interesting is the seeming absence of nineteenth century data sets. Whiteware, for example, is very scarce, as are other clearly nineteenth century items such as patent medicine bottles. This is worthy of note for several reasons. Bastian (1987:7-3) noted a similar absence of nineteenth century midden and features from her work at the adjacent post office property. She lists a variety of possible explanations, including sampling error, widespread scattering of the trash, or even that the use of the area did not generate large quantities of trash. The work by Zierden and her colleagues at 66 Society Street, however, stands in contrast to Bastian's findings. The 66 Society Street location exhibited large quantities of nineteenth century trash, apparently deposited everywhere where there was open space on the lot (Zierden et al. 1988). These contrasts make the site formation pattern in the Broad Street area a particularly interesting research question.

Pattern Analysis

The various artifact patterns for the different site areas are illustrated in Table 7. Of course the data sets are very small and are consequently suspect as perhaps not representative of the cultural remains generated on, or immediately surrounding the study lots. Nevertheless, the data are interesting since they seem to suggest two distinct patterns are present in the study collections.

Table 7.
Artifact Patterns for Excavation Units

	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4
Kitchen Group				
Ceramics	19	114	62	21
Colono ware	1	2		1
Glass	17	76	43	25
Tableware	1	1		
Subtotal	38	193	105	47
%	67.9	50.6	56.5	60.3
Architecture Group				
Window glass	8	57	30	2
Hardware		1		
Nails	7	94	37	18
Subtotal	15	152	67	20
%	26.8	39.9	36.0	25.6
Furniture Group				
Hardware		1	1	
Subtotal		1	1	
%	-	0.3	0.5	-
Tobacco Group				
Pipe Stems	3	21	10	7
Pipe Bowls		6	3	3
Subtotal	3	27	13	10
%	5.3	7.1	7.0	12.8
Clothing Group				
Buttons		2		1
Other		1		
Subtotal		3		1
%	-	0.8	-	1.3
Personal Group				
Beads		1		
Personal Items				
Subtotal		1		
%	-	0.3	-	-
Activities Group				
Toys		1		
Other		3		
Subtotal		4		
%	-	1.0	-	-

Kitchen Group artifacts dominate each unit, representing from 50.6% to 67.9% of the collections. Units 1 and 4 cluster together between 60.3% and 67.9%, while the other two units cluster between 50.6% and 56.5%. Architecture artifacts, the other major category, range between 25.6% and 39.9% of the assemblage. Again, Units 1 and 4 cluster together, with a range of 25.6% to 26.8%, while Units 2 and 3 cluster between 36.0% and 39.9%.

Furniture Group artifacts range from absent to 0.5% of the collection (with Units 2 and 3 clustering together). Arms artifacts are absent in all collections. Tobacco artifacts represent a relatively wide range from 5.3% in Unit 1 to 12.8% in Unit 4. Units 2 and 3, however, cluster together at 7.1% and 7.0% respectively. Clothing artifacts are spread over a wide range, being absent in

Units 1 and 3, and representing 0.8% of the assemblage in Unit 2 and 1.3% of the collection from Unit 4. Personal Group artifacts are found in only Unit 2, which is also the only unit to produce Activities Group artifacts.

These artifact patterns are more meaningful when they are compared to those derived from previous research, especially research in downtown Charleston. A range of previously defined artifact patterns are provided in Table 8. Over the past decade Zierden and her colleagues have developed what they have the dual-function and townhouse profiles (see Zierden et al. 1988). The townhouse pattern has been obtained from domestic only suburban townhouses. These sites represent the homes of Charleston's elite, being first occupied in the late eighteenth or early nineteenth centuries. In general they exhibit no major rebuilding efforts.

In contrast, the dual-function pattern is derived from sites which exhibit some commercial sites. This pattern is based on sites where the merchant and his family lived over the street-level shop, so the archaeological record includes craft-domestic occupations. They note that the elevated activities group is likely a reflection of commercial activity at urban sites.

The Lodge Alley example from Charleston is one of the relatively few collections from a "fringe-area" of the city. Historical research revealed that while the alley was on the edge of city's commercial district during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the alley itself was used for primarily residential purposes by lower class citizens (Zierden et al. 1983). In a similar manner, the data from 66 Society Street represents a residential property for the white middle class (Zierden et al. 1988).

The differences between the two seem to be almost a matter of degree. Both Lodge Alley and 66 Society Street are dominated by kitchen artifacts, ranging between means of 70.2% and 76.2%, reflecting the importance of domestic activities. The Lodge Alley collection, however, has an appreciable lower architectural percentage, about 17.8, compared to 26.6% at 66 Society Street. This difference is almost certainly reflects the difference in wealth of the two. In the case of furniture, arms, and personal artifacts the difference is between less than 0.1% and upwards of 0.3%. While these are not large differences they likely represent significant differences in lifeways, with the alley-dwellers possessing fewer pieces of furniture and fewer personal items. The difference in arms may also reflect fewer items of fresh, wild meat (which often contain shot).[2] In a similar manner, there seems to be societal difference between the two, with those in alley smoking considerably more pipes than the middle class owners or renters. Activity artifacts are significantly higher at the middle class dwelling, perhaps representing a greater range of activities conducted on-site.

Recently Charleston artifact patterns have also been examined diachronically, with the discovery that the overall trends change with time (Zierden et al. 1995). Three general periods have been used: 1720-1760, which includes data from the Heyward-Washington House, the John Rutledge House, the Miles Brewton House, Charleston's Beef Market, the First Trident Site, and McCrady's Longroom; 1760-1830, which includes components from the Rutledge, Brewton, Beef Market, and First Trident sites, as well as data from the William Gibbes and 66 Society Street; and 1830-1880, which includes components from the Brewton, Rutledge, Heyward-Washington, and 66 Society Street sites, as well as data from the Aiken-Rhett site. While these constructs do not include a large number of low-status sites, they do clearly reveal the temporal changes which are present in Charleston.

The Revised Carolina Artifact Pattern was

[2] Zierden has supported numerous faunal studies in Charleston, virtually all conducted by Reitz and her students. The various assemblages have been carefully explored for dietary differences across status lines, but only minor variations have been found. The major difference is that the elite ate a more varied diet and much of this variety was provided by wild game which those of less substance had difficulty in obtaining (see Zierden et al. 1995:118).

originally developed by South (1977) with some later modifications by Garrow (1982). The pattern reflects British Colonial domestic activity, although it does include some assemblages of combined domestic-craft activities.

Table 8.
Comparative Archaeological Patterns

	Townhouse Profile[1]	Dual-Funct Profile[1]	Lodge Alley[2]	66 Society St[3]	Charleston 1720-1760[4]	Charleston 1760-1830[4]	Charleston 1830-1880[4]	Carolina Pattern[5]	Georgia Slave[6]
Kitchen	58.38	63.10	76.20	70.20	55.81	58.47	43.63	58.40	70.78
Architecture	36.00	25.03	17.79	26.60	26.00	33.64	48.32	28.30	24.34
Furniture	0.21	0.08	0.07	0.10	0.25	0.20	0.18	0.40	0.02
Arms	0.32	0.20	0.43	0.60	0.19	0.30	0.24	0.20	0.14
Tobacco	2.79	5.97	4.23	0.30	11.25	4.45	1.39	7.90	3.32
Clothing	0.91	1.18	0.60	0.40	0.64	1.13	3.52	3.00	1.03
Personal	0.24	0.14	0.21	0.50	0.29	0.45	0.61	0.35	0.09
Activities	1.10	4.14	0.77	1.30	5.47	1.31	2.05	1.30	0.28

[1] Zierden et al. 1988:Table 3
[2] Zierden et al. 1983:Table 9
[3] Zierden et al. 1988:Table 3
[4] Zierden et al. 1995:Table 8
[5] Revised Carolina Artifact Pattern is from South (1977) and Garrow (1982)
[6] Singleton 1980: Table 18

Finally, the Georgia Slave Artifact Pattern developed by Singleton (1980) is included for comparison. The pattern reflects the assemblages of nineteenth century Sea Island Georgia (and South Carolina) plantation slaves. This pattern is primarily distinct from that found at 66 Society Street based on the more minor constituents, such as furniture, arms, personal, and even activity artifacts. The general similarity with the Lodge Alley pattern is probably the result of a "culture of poverty," regardless of whether one was a slave or freeman.

Unit 1, placed to explore the rear yard associated with 87 Broad, in spite of its relatively early date, bears little resemblance to the diachronic pattern anticipated, likely because the unit incorporates a range of materials from different deposits. This resulting "combined" pattern appears to fall somewhere midway between that of dual-function sites and of middle class sites like 66 Society Street.

In a similar manner, the artifacts recovered from Unit 4, at the rear of 95 Broad in association with a kitchen building, appear to reflect this middling status, perhaps tempered by association with strong mercantile activities.

Units 2 and 3, both associated with 93 Broad, stand in contrast and both appear to closely resemble the anticipated Townhouse Profile developed by Zierden and her colleagues. In addition, both units come very close to fitting the temporal patterns established after years of work in Charleston. While there are minor deviations, we are more surprised with how closely they fit, given the sampling technique, than we are concerned with the deviations.

Summary

These four units present an interesting glimpse of life on the block during the mid-eighteenth through early nineteenth centuries. Units 2 and 3, both taken from the lot at 93 Broad provide a strong indication that they can address a range of questions associated with the occupants of a moderately high status townhouse dwelling. Units

1 and 4, while not exhibiting as close a fit to previously identified patterns, nevertheless are appropriate for what the historical research documents as mixed use with frequent renting by middling status tenants.

A wide range of data sets have been documented, including a variety of eighteenth century artifacts and what appears to be especially dense, and well preserved, faunal remains. A wide range of eighteenth century artifacts are present, ranging from large fragments of ceramics to small items like straight pins. Nineteenth century remains are more problematical, but we can not discount their existence based on the limited backhoe cuts possible. Ethnobotanical remains were identified, primarily as wood charcoal fragments present in the waterscreening. Previous research in Charleston has revealed, however, that flotation of small samples is rarely useful since the recovery rate is rather low.

Added to this recounting of identified data sets must also be the presence of well preserved architectural features. Unit 4, for example, identified the north wall of the associated kitchen building demolished for the expansion of the Piggly Wiggly store. Unit 1 likewise identified architectural features.

Three of the four units revealed deep, well preserved stratigraphy, indicating that it is possible to recover a well preserved archaeological record including both features and sheet middens. Fill and demolition rubble appears limited to upper 1.0 to 1.5 feet and appears to have sealed the lower levels.

SITE ASSESSMENT AND PROPOSED DATA RECOVERY

Overview and Site Assessment

The proposed Hollings Judicial Center Annex will involve extensive construction affecting the archaeological resources on those lots currently known as 85 Broad Street through 101 Broad Street. The actual footprint of the building will cover most of the lots known as 85 through 93 Broad, for a total of 16,800 ft², while the rear portion of 95 and 97 Broad, as well as the entire area of 101 Broad will be impacted by demolition and subsequent use of these lots for construction staging, accounting for an additional 12,300 ft². The impacts associated with this project, based on both a review of the current project and an understanding of construction methods in the urban setting, will be extensive and will thoroughly and completely destroy any archeological remains which may be present.

The historical overview of the block provides some information on its development. Although a title search has been conducted for only two of the 10 lots under consideration, this initial effort helps us understand the development of this part of Charleston, especially when compared to the extensive previous research conducted by Martha Zierden and her colleagues at The Charleston Museum. In the most general of terms we have found that the block was extensively developed by the mid-eighteenth century, although some areas (such as the lots at 97-101 Broad) saw extensive early nineteenth century demolition and rebuilding.

Several lots, particularly 85-87, 89, 93, and 95 Broad were almost certainly owner-occupied during the eighteenth century. At least one, 93 Broad, was owner-occupied into the mid-nineteenth century. Most, however, gradually shifted from owner-occupied to rental property by the early nineteenth century. The most reasonable explanation is that as the residential core south of Broad was solidified, Broad itself became a transitional "neighborhood." Owned as an investment for renting, it was no longer a favored or prime residential area as commercial and civic activities became more common in the area. It represents, perhaps more clearly than any other research area in Charleston, a neighborhood in flux.

The renters during the nineteenth century were neither very high status, nor very low. They represent a diverse mix of young and old, male and female. Some were students, others were young, single clerks. Some were widows. This middling status is perhaps what is expected in a fringe neighborhood.

Although it is almost certain that African Americans were common as slaves in the rear yards of these lots during the eighteenth and early nineteenth century, only one mention of a free person of color was found in the historical research. A Gilbert Wall, tailor, was shown by the City Directories living at 101 Broad Street in 1831. In the postbellum there are occasional references to blacks renting the rear buildings in the block.

This historical context, therefore, pointed out several areas of immediate concern. First, there are those lots owned and occupied by the wealthy planters and merchants — the individuals who created the townhouses for which Charleston is so well know. There is an equally significant data base for middling status renters — the truly anonymous person in nineteenth century Charleston. And finally, there is also evidence for an African American presence on the block. All three are equally worthy of careful study.

The archaeological research was every bit as revealing as the historical documentation. We found dense, and deep, archaeological deposits at all found test areas. The archaeological data sets were found to include a broad range of artifacts, architectural features, intact stratigraphy, dense

faunal remains, and the potential for ethnobotanical remains.

Although the collections are small, two units revealed relatively good evidence for what has been previously identified as a townhouse profile in Charleston. Consistent with the historical data, the archaeological remains reveal their potential to provide detailed information on these wealthy members of society. In addition, two other units provided an artifact profile or pattern which seems to fall midway between what has been termed a dual-function pattern (representing both domestic and commercial activity) and what has been found at middling status sites in Charleston. Again, the archaeological data seem entirely consistent with the historical research.

The archaeological remains also revealed typically early mean ceramic dates, meaning that a large proportion of the materials recovered likely date from the eighteenth century. There was, in contrast, relatively small assemblages of material which likely dated from the 1830s on. This is consistent with the findings of other archaeologists who have worked in this area, but stands in stark contrast to work in other parts of Charleston where areas of nineteenth century middling status occupation have produced large assemblages. While we have no explanation for this, it clearly is an anomaly worthy of additional study and attention.

Zierden and her colleagues have previously proposed a broad range of appropriate, and important, research topics for different areas of Charleston, although many of these overlap and are applicable regardless of specific section of the city.

For the project area, research topics can be divided into two broad categories, by time period — eighteenth century and nineteenth century.

For eighteenth century deposits one of the most intriguing questions focuses on the urban landscape and, in particular, the "use" of the townhouse lot. Zierden and her colleagues have made major strides in the recent exploration of the Nathaniel Russell house (Zierden 1996:143-149). Previous work has found that work yard was the location of extensive discard behavior, especially as options for discard were reduced by the expansion of buildings on open land. Curiously, a somewhat different approach was taken at Nathaniel Russell's house — trash, including large quantities of faunal remains, were deposited *under* the kitchen, apparently thrown out of sight.

To this scenario we need to also factor in the possibility that the city market, which originally occupied all four corners of Broad and Meeting, may have been a source of a considerably quantity of trash. Bastian, for example, suggests that some of this trash may have made it way onto the post office property. Joseph views the situation differently, suggesting that private trash made its way onto the public market grounds.

An equally intriguing aspect of the urban landscape, which Zierden also discusses in her Russell house inquiry, is how the work yard, drains, privies, wells or pumps, and cisterns were all combined. Most of our information on such topics comes from historic documentation (primarily plats), with relatively little archaeological exploration (largely because large areas of rear yards have yet to be methodically explored.

Coupled with this interest in the urban landscape is any equally important interest in the material culture of the occupants. Zierden (1996:138) provides an important definition of "elite," noting that they owned at least one plantation and maintained at least eight slaves in the city. The lots themselves were larger than 18,000 square feet, and the houses were in excess of 7,000 square feet. Although antebellum rather than colonial, James Simons comes close to what we might consider elite. He did, in fact, own eight slaves in the city. Yet his lot encompasses only 8,000 square feet and his main house only 3,000 square feet. Each half of the Josiah Smith double house encompassed only 3,200 square feet and the total lot was only 7,600 square feet. The elite for this block of Broad Street were clearly not "as elite" as those in other sections of Charleston. The point is that we may expect to find a different range of material culture, coupled perhaps with

different food remains, at these sites than Zierden and her colleagues have found elsewhere at high status townhouse sites.

By the nineteenth century there was an entirely different "class" of people living in the project area. Some were almost certainly comparable to those explored at sites such as 66 Society Street. Others, however, were likely divergent. Since virtually all of the property was rental, it may be impossible to associate specific deposits with specific individuals or families. It will, nevertheless, be possible to associate features and well dated sheet middens to broad groups — and such efforts will help us to better understand the faceless urban middle class of the nineteenth century.

Based on the findings from the study area, the lots from 85 Broad west through 101 Broad have been defined as archaeological site 38CH1644. The archaeological survey also reveals that these remains are clearly eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places under Criteria D: that they have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Although this entire area has been integrated into this survey, and although we have outlined research questions for the entire 29,100 ft² construction area, the data recovery plan outlined below is limited to the 16,800 ft² building footprint area. The reason for this is two-fold. First, the staging area is not owned by the developer (Moore Development Corporation) or the federal government — it is owned by the City of Charleston. Consequently, the City bears the primary responsibility for the protection of cultural resources on this tract. Second, by eliminating this square footage from the overall data recovery plan it is possible to focus our limited resources on the area which will receive the bulk of the impact from this protect.

Our data recovery plan will outline steps we propose to take in order to minimize construction-related impact on the staging area. Moore Development Corporation has agreed to work with Chicora to ensure that the resources in this area are not impacted by the use of the area for construction staging.

We believe that research should focus on six key areas or topics:

- eighteenth century townhouse lots such as 85-87 Broad, 93 Broad, *and 95 Broad*, even if some of these are later identified to be middling status;
- eighteenth century smaller dwellings such as 89 Broad, which are almost certainly middling status;
- *eighteenth century tenements such as 97 Broad, 99 Broad, and 101 Broad, which likely represent lower middle status;*
- *early nineteenth century free person of color occupation at 101 Broad, if such deposits can be isolated;*
- a search for nineteenth century deposits which can be associated with the middling status rental tenements found in the project area; and
- a search for postbellum deposits which can be associated with the rental of rear buildings to African Americans.

Those topics which are shown italicized are ones which can only be addressed through the investigation of the staging area and are therefore held in abeyance until such time as this area is open for investigation.

Proposed Data Recovery Plan

We do not believe that any additional survey work is necessary in the project area.

Although a Phase 2 testing program might help identify the nineteenth century deposits and postbellum deposits outlined in two of our research topics, the cost of additional testing — both in terms of money and time — is likely not worth the possible benefits, especially since any Phase 2 Testing would need to wait the large scale removal of buildings proposed for demolition.

Instead, we believe that the prudent approach is to outline a Phase 3 Data Recovery Plan appropriate for the study tract and discuss some of the logistical requirements for such a plan to be successful.

As previously mentioned, this data recovery plan will focus only on the construction footprint area. Consequently, none of the research goals outlined as appropriate for 95 through 101 Broad Street are currently integrated into this project. **This portion of archaeological site 38CH1644 remains eligible for inclusion on the National Register and will require archaeological investigation prior to any development activity.** The City of Charleston should be made aware of this and their responsibility for protecting the site (discussed below).

The work proposed involves essentially three levels of research activity:

(1) archaeological data recovery,

(2) analysis of the collections, and

(3) report production.

This section of the survey report details how each phase of activity will take place during data recovery efforts.

Archaeological Data Recovery

Investigations at the sites will follow professionally accepted standards. Given the extent of the site, the phased approach to the work, and the potential for construction damage to shallowly laid grid nails, we propose to maintain horizontal control using extant buildings. Since these buildings are shown on both plats, plans, and aerial photographs, relocation of units should not be a problem. Vertical control will be maintained by transferring a mean sea level datum from the steps of the post office to the project area.

Unless otherwise specified, the minimal excavation unit will be a 5 by 5 foot unit, although under some circumstances these may be combined together to provide larger units (providing longer profiles or opening larger areas of features, for example). Chicora has adopted engineering measurements (feet and tenths of feet) for consistency in its work, especially on European sites where structural measurements are most often in feet.

The excavations, where possible, will be by the natural soil zones. The backhoe tests provide an excellent frame of reference for this work. They reveal what can be anticipated in several major site areas. We recognize the need to balance fine precision of excavations to maximize temporal control of the resulting collections against the limited time and funds available for the work. All archaeological work is essential a series of compromises and this work is no different. Where possible control will be very tight. Where it is necessary to accept a greater tolerance in order to maximize our excavations, the control will be less precise.

After the initial removal of parking lot and leveling rubble, all excavations will be by hand. Excavation spoil will typically be waterscreened through either ¼ or ⅛-inch mesh, depending on the nature of zone deposit or feature.

These excavations will target specific site areas thought to be most likely to produce the information necessary to address the proposed research questions. For example:

- 400 ft² should be excavated at the rear of 85-87 Broad to explore this eighteenth century townhouse setting, focusing on the still intact kitchen areas and rear yards;

- 400 ft² should be excavated at the rear of 93 Broad to explore the original eighteenth century setting, coupled with the subsequent nineteenth century townhouse, focusing on the area under the kitchen (to be demolished), and the rear and side yard areas.

- 300 ft² should be excavated at the rear of 89 Broad to explore this middling status dwelling, with focus on the kitchen area (to be demolished), and the rear and side yard areas.

An additional 200 ft² is left in reserve, to be used as needed during the course of the project. Assuming the entire 1300 ft² of excavation are used (which assumes that the additional time is not needed for other purposes, such as feature excavation), this proposed square footage represents a 7.8% sample of the construction area.

In an effort to maximize the recovery of ethnobotanical remains, flotation samples will be collected only from those features or zones which exhibit a high potential for the presence of charred remains (typically midden soils — very dark, often greasy to the touch, and frequently exhibiting a large quantity of charcoal). These soils will be processed, using a mechanical water flotation system, in the field. A minimum of 1 ft³ of soil will be processed, with a maximum of 5 ft³ being processed (a cubic foot of soil is approximately equal to a packed 5-gallon bucket). Analysis of flotation samples will be conducted in-house.

A one-quart soil sample will also be collected from each provenience for future soil chemistry needs. All such soil samples have soil pH measured at the time of the investigation using a microprocessor-based pH tester (resolution of 0.1 and accuracy of ±0.1), with the result recorded on the Unit Level Form.

We will also be collecting pollen and phytolith samples from appropriate features. Both will be focused on the identification of cultigens (especially garden cultigens). The pollen analysis will be conducted by Dr. Arthur Cohen at the University of South Carolina. The phytolith samples will be processed by Dr. Irv Rovner at Beta Analytic.

Each unit will be troweled at the top of subsoil, photographed in b/w and color slide film, and profile and plan views will be drawn. Drawings and/or photographic documentation will occur more frequently as conditions warrant. Chicora Foundation routinely uses Ilford 100 Delta Professional film for black and white prints, since this film provides exceptional shadow detail and very fine grain. Color transparency film may be either Fujichrome Sensia 100. Although traditionally Kodachrome has been used because of its long-term dark stability, Kodak's recent handling of this film has been far from satisfactory. While the Fuji cannot duplicate Kodachrome's long-term stability, it does provide superior color stability of projected images.

Features encountered during the excavations will be plotted and photographed. Features, or samples of features, will be bisected to provide profiles, photographs, and drawings. All feature fill will be water screened through ⅛ or ¼-inch mesh. Samples retained will minimally include a soil sample.

At the conclusion of all proposed hand excavation we anticipate up to a week of controlled mechanical excavation, using a backhoe. This work will explore predefined areas searching for large, potentially significant features — privies, wells, cisterns, and undetected basements or cellars. The goal of this work will be to identify large features and obtain a sample of materials present. Depending on the quantity of features, and the density of the remains, these may, or may not, be incorporated into the final analysis. Regardless, they will be avialable for future study and will not be left to either the destruction of the development process or looting by privy diggers.

Areas of particular concern are rear lot lines, where privies tend to be situated. Of equal

concern will be open yard areas, where wells and cisterns are often constructed. This work will be accomplished by having the backhoe operator excavate trenches perpendicular to the target areas, in the hope of encountering features. Once exposed, the feature will be cleaned for photography and drawing, as the backhoe cuts are continued. Only at the conclusion of the cuts will a decision regarding excavation be undertaken, since we realize that it may be necessary to sample the exposed features. The questions proposed for this project will emphasize the excavation of eighteenth and early nineteenth century features over postbellum features.

Site Interpretation

We would welcome the opportunity to work with the public in conjunction with Moore Development Corporation. Chicora Foundation has extensive experience in this area — developing curricula materials, working with teachers and students on-site, developing and implementing volunteer programs, and providing public access. In fact, no other group in the Southeast has our level of experience or commitment to public interpretation. Broad Street offers an exceptional opportunity to undertake a wide range of educational programs.

There are a number of projects which *might* be feasible for implementation given the nature of the site and the relatively short duration of the field project. Specific programs might involve:

- programs for either students or teachers, depending on when the work is conducted;
- development of curricula guides keyed into the field work;
- local media attention, with special attention given to ETV programming suitable for later use by teachers;
- use of local volunteers, perhaps by scheduling work on weekends;
- the development of a local seminar series, perhaps in conjunction with Historic Charleston Foundation, conducted in the evenings while the field work is being conducted; and
- creation of a small exhibit area in one of the vacant buildings or perhaps in one of the available shop windows.

Analysis of the Collections

We anticipate that the excavations will produce a very large collection of historic remains, including ceramics, glass, and metal artifacts. In addition there will be zooarchaeological (faunal) materials, and likely ethnobotanical (carbonized floral) remains at least from feature contexts.

The faunal studies will include a broad range of detailed analyses, including:

- minimum number of individuals represented,
- biomass of species represented,
- seasonality indicators,
- possible procurement and butchering techniques,
- diversity of species, and
- equitability determinations for the recovered species.

This study will not only address the most obvious questions of what the different Broad Street residents were eating, how they were procuring these meats, and how they were preparing the foods, but also the very important question of how this diet compares to other urban residents by class and time. The study offers an excellent opportunity

to compare the collection to the exceptional studies previously conducted by Reitz at Charleston sites, as well as compare the work to the seemingly anomalous results obtained at the courthouse annex.

The ethnobotanical examination will include:

- identification of wood species recovered,
- seasonality indicators, and
- identification of food remains, including both wild and domesticated species.

The pollen and phytolith analysis, previously discussed, will focus on plant food indicators (such as wind born cultigen pollen and phytoliths in cereal grains), as well as gathering data appropriate for yard-level vegetative reconstructions.

The first phase of analysis will be the rinsing, drying, and rough sorting of collections. Since virtually of the collections will be gathered from water screening, washing is anticipated to be required on most proveniences.

We anticipate establishing a temporary field laboratory on-site, to be staffed largely by volunteers and part-time individuals trained by Chicora personnel. Additional work would be conducted by the field crew during rain delays. All final processing would take place in Columbia at Chicora's laboratories.

The second phase of analysis includes final sorting and cataloging, which will be conducted at the Chicora laboratories in Columbia. Ms. Hacker will be responsible for the cataloging, analysis, and curation of the collections. Faunal materials will be sorted out and sent to Dr. Homes Hogue, at Mississippi State University for additional study. Ethnobotanical materials will be separated for study by Dr. Trinkley. Pollen and phytolith samples will be forwarded to Dr. Arthur Cohen and Dr. Irv Rovner respectively.

The temporal, cultural, and typological classification of historic remains will follow such sources as Noel Hume (1970), Miller (1980, 1991), Price (1979), South (1977), and others. Pattern studies, mean ceramic dates, and status studies, as appropriate, will be conducted on the historic artifacts recovered from the excavations. Minimum vessel counts will be conducted for different excavation areas and features.

Some artifacts, once removed from the stable environment of the soil, begin to rapidly deteriorate and items of bone and shell are particularly prone to further deterioration as a result of excavation. Chicora Foundation routinely conserves its own collections, offering the collections to the curatorial facility in stable condition.

Chicora will also provide the curatorial facility field records and photographic documentation in archival condition. For example, Chicora's field records will be on alkaline buffered, pH neutral paper and photographic materials will be processed to archival standards. Chicora is one of the few research institutions which maintains such high standards.

We would anticipate curation of the data recovery collections at the same institution as the survey collections. This, however, would require the approval of The Charleston Museum accession committee.

Report Production

Report production will involve the submission of a brief management summary within two weeks of the completion of the field work at the site to provide Moore Development Corporation, the federal government, Historic Charleston Foundation, and the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office with information on the preliminary findings.

Over the next year following the completion of the data recovery efforts, Chicora will develop a professional monograph, detailing

the scope of the work, the effective environment, the nature and history of the project area, the field methods, the laboratory and analysis methods, the results of the study, the results of specialized studies, and references cited.

The format and style of the final monograph will resemble previous Chicora Foundation *Research Series*. A draft report will be submitted for review by the sponsor and other concerned agencies. Ten copies of the final report will be submitted to Moore Development Corporation for distribution to other groups. Chicora also distributes the report to professional and lay audiences to ensure that the findings are available to the community. The dissemination of this information is a significant aspect of public archaeology, since the work is being undertaken to preserve a significant aspect of South Carolina's heritage.

Integration of Data Recovery Efforts Into the Proposed Construction Schedule

Chicora Foundation will require at least two week's notice to gear up for this project and anticipate, based on discussions with the contractors and developer, that the project will begin in mid to late September.

We also understand that the first activities on the part of the developer will be the demolition of out buildings at 89 Broad (by equipment) and 93 Broad (by hand). We anticipate beginning our excavations in the under kitchen area associated with the demolished structure at 89 Broad, allowing additional time for 93 Broad to be removed.

Mechanical assistance in removing asphalt and recent spoil or fill will be required for excavations at the rear of 85-87 Broad, some yard areas associated with 89 Broad, and some yard areas associated with 93 Broad.

Our goal will be to excavate areas in concert with the construction schedule and to prevent open areas (which attract privy looters) from being left for long periods.

The archaeological data recovery plan we have proposed should require a crew of six to eight archaeologists approximately seven to eight weeks — either right at, or slightly under the two months which have been allotted for archaeological research.

Developer and Contractor Responsibilities

It will be essential for the developer, Moore Development Corporation, and their contractors, to provide certain equipment and facilities during this research. It will also be essential that the developer and contractor agree to abide by certain stipulations regarding their work.

Equipment and Facilities

Chicora will require dedicated space for establishing a field lab. Since there are several empty buildings, space in one of these would be the ideal solution. We will need about 600 square feet for the lab space. We would need, in addition, at least a temporary 20 amp service to this space. While running water is not essential, it would be helpful. Any additional space could be used for storage of field equipment. In addition, consideration should be given to using some of this space to promote the project — perhaps developing a display of the archaeological finds, a display exploring the history of the block, a display explaining what the new building will look like. Although this is not prime tourist season, use of otherwise vacant space can be of considerable benefit. Historic Charleston Foundation may even be interested in developing a display on the HABS component of the study.

The water screening proposed for these investigations will require sufficient pressure to operate at least three hoses at approximately 40 to 50 psi. In addition, one tap will be required for use of the field lab. These can be provided by multiple household taps or by tapping into a city hydrant.

A portable toilet will also be required for the duration of the project, although this can be shared with the construction crew. Alternatively,

there may be a functioning bathroom in the building used as a field laboratory.

Chicora will require dedicated parking for a maximum of four vehicles. Three can be in the current GSA parking lot or can be on the street. One will need to be in the GSA parking area to allow assess to our work areas.

The developer will be responsible for identifying the location of all active buried utilities. While inactive utilities are not as important, if they can be identified we would prefer to excavate around them.

Finally, the developer will be responsible for providing access to a backhoe and operator. This equipment will be needed perhaps four times during the project — to remove spoil from the rear of 85-87 Broad, to remove asphalt and fill from the rear of 89 Broad, to remove asphalt and fill from the rear and side of 93 Broad, and to excavate backhoe cuts toward the conclusion of the project.

Work Stipulations

For this project to work to be successful and for the archaeology to be integrated into the development process, we strongly recommend that an archaeological representative be included in all construction scheduling meetings.

It is also very important for the construction foreman to know, from his supervisors, that the archaeological research is an integral, and essential, component of the overall construction process. The support of the developer for the archaeological research will go a long way to ensuring the cooperation of the foreman and his workers.

All employees of the contractor, and all subcontractors who work on the site, should be notified in writing that their employees are not to disturb or remove any archaeological resources from the project area. Archaeological resources should be identified as *any* item over 50 years of age, including pottery, ceramics, glass, bottles, dishes, or coins. While we understand the human nature to pick things up, this should not be allowed and all workers should report discoveries to the archaeological team.

All demolition work conducted by hand at 93 Broad should, as much as practical, avoid dumping materials into the interior of the structure. No mechanical devices should be allowed to clean up the interior area. Walls should not be removed deeper than ground level prior to the archaeological research (i.e., the contractor should not be allowed to either grub out or excavate foundation brickwork).

All mechanical demolition work at 89 Broad should be conducted only when the ground is dry. In so far as practical the demolition should strive to pull (or butterfly) walls outward, not allow them to collapse inward. We realize is different from normal demolition practice, but helps to prevent damage to underlying soil layers and minimizes the heap of rubble to be gathered up from the area which we need to study. Only rubber tired equipment such as front end loaders should be allowed on the demolition site. The operator should be specifically instructed not to pick up soil with the rubble, but rather to allow the bucket to run along the ground surface. Any additional cleaning of demolition rubble should be conducted by hand. Walls should not be removed deeper than ground level prior to the archaeological research (i.e., the contractor should not be allowed to grub out foundation walls).

Demolition of the Piggly Wiggly buildings, at 101 Broad and behind 95 Broad, should proceed in a similar fashion. The concrete floor, if at all possible, should be left in place. If it must be removed, it may not be grubbed out — all removal must be by hand with assistance from a backhoe to pick up sections. If the concrete floor is removed, it must be immediately replaced by filter fabric and a bed of at least one foot of crush run. The goal here is to protect the sealed ground level from any disturbance. Without this protection at a very minimum the upper 1.0 to 1.5 foot of soil will be impacted by construction activities. If no archaeological investigations are to take place here, then this area must be carefully protected so that research can take place in the future.

Site Security

The developer will be responsible for security of the site and should make clear plans with the City of Charleston for increased patrols and enforcement of no trespassing provisions. In particular, it will absolutely essential that privy looters be kept off the site. Under no circumstances should they be allowed to "collect" or "explore" any portion of the site. Since this project is considered a federal undertaking by GSA, the Archaeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA, 16 USC 470AA et. seq.) would appear to apply. Specifically, this law prohibits the excavation, removal, damage or defacing of archaeological resources under federal jurisdiction. There are both criminal and civil penalties for violation.

Even if ARPA's protection does not apply to this work area, removal of materials from the City's property is theft. ARPA includes a provision which makes it a federal offense to sell, purchase, exchange, transport, or receive in interstate commerce any archaeological resource excavated in violation of any provision, rule, regulation, ordinance or permit in effect under state or local law. Consequently, removal of items across state lines from the city's property would become a federal offense.

The easiest way to avoid these issues is simply to ensure site security. This can be achieved by educating construction workers, fencing the area, keeping all access locked, and ensuring that the site is monitored.

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